

**A Critical Analysis of Community Participation and Benefits from
Conservation. A Comparative Study of Mthethomusha Game
Reserve and the Pilanesberg National Park.**

By

CAROLYN ANNE BRAYSHAW

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ABSTRACT

This dissertation is an attempt to analyse and address some of the many and complex issues revolving around protected area - community relationships. The success of these relationships are essential if the mission of protected areas are to be achieved. Due to large scale agriculture, high density populations and environmental degradation protected areas are often looked upon as a means to conserve biodiversity. It is for this reason that they play an important role in the natural environmental of South Africa. However, there is a growing realisation that protected areas will not survive unless they become relevant to the communities that surround them. These communities are often characterised by high density populations and low levels of infrastructural and economic development. These developmental requirements need to be considered by protected area management, and a dedicated effort is required by protected areas to assist in meeting these needs. However, the relationship between protected areas and communities should not simply focus on meeting the developmental needs of the community, relationships need to allow for communities to participate in decisions and activities that directly impact of their lives. Benefits need to accrue to communities from protected areas for them to support the concepts of conservation. Benefits need to be tangible, intangible and empowering for them to have real meaningful impacts on the communities. Communities need to be actively involve in all aspects of the protected area management and links need to be forged between conservation and development, so that the socio-economic condition of those living closest to protected areas improves.

This study uses the relationship between Mthethomusha Game Reserve and the surrounding Mpakeni community, and the Pilanesberg National Park and the neighbouring Bakgatla community to investigate many issues, including the manner in which communities participate and benefit from conservation. The findings of this study reflect that the relationships between communities and protected areas are dependent on a number of factors including; ownership; socio-economic condition of the surrounding community; institutional structures and capacity of the community; formal agreements; history of the formation of the protected area; reliance on the

protected area for survival and the meaningfulness and appropriateness of the benefits received from the protected area.

The experiences of the two case studies has been analysed and compared to develop a theoretical model for community - protected area relationships. This model indicates the primary prerequisites which will contribute to effective and equitable relationships between protected areas and surrounding communities.

DECLARATION

The research described in this dissertation was carried out through the Centre of Environment and Development, University of Natal, Pietermaritzburg, from August 1998 to June 1999, under the supervision of Professor Ruth Edgecombe and Ms. Fonda Lewis.

The work represents original work by the author and have not otherwise been submitted in any form for any degree or diploma to an University. Where use has been made of the work of others it is duly acknowledged in the text.

Carolyn Brayshaw

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Abstract	i
Declaration	iii
List of figures	vi
List of tables	vi
List of Abbreviations	vii
Acknowledgments	viii
 Chapter 1 The “People - Parks” Conundrum	 1
1.1 Introduction	1
+ 1.2 Aims and Objectives	2
 Chapter 2. Research Method	 4
2.1 Method	4
2.2 Analysis	7
2.3 The Case Studies	7
 Chapter 3. Community - Protected Area Relations	 9
3.1 Introduction	9
+ 3.2 Poverty	9
3.3 Ownership	10
3.4 Partnerships	11
3.5 Benefits	12
3.5.1 Tangible Benefits	12
3.5.2 Intangible Benefits	14
3.5.3 Empowerment	14
3.6 Environmental education and awareness	16
3.7 Conclusion	17
 Chapter 4. Mthethomusha Game Reserve	 19
4.1 Introduction	19
✓ 4.2 Socio-economic situation	21
4.2.1 Settlements surrounding MGR	22
4.2.1.1 Mpakeni Tribal Area	23
4.2.1.2 Lomshilo Tribal Area	26
4.2.2 Conclusion	27
4.3 Political structures and community institutions	27
4.4 Relationship with MGR	28
4.4.1 Ownership	28
✓ 4.5 Benefits	33
4.5.1 Tangible benefits	34
4.5.2 Intangible benefits	39
4.6 Empowerment	39
4.7 Environmental education and awareness	40
4.8 Tourism	41

Chapter 5. Pilanesberg National Park	45
5.1 Introduction	45
5.2 Socio-economic situation	45
5.2.1 Settlements surrounding Pilanesberg National Park	47
5.2.1.1 The Bakgatla Tribal Area	47
5.2.2 Conclusion	50
5.3 Political structure and community institutions	50
✓ 5.4 Relationship with Pilanesberg National Park	51
5.4.1 Ownership	52
5.5 Benefits	55
5.5.1 Tangible benefits	55
5.5.2 Intangible benefits	57
5.6 Empowerment	58
5.7 Environmental education and awareness	60
5.8 Tourism	62
Chapter 6. Analysis	65
6.1 Introduction	65
6.2 SWOT analysis of MGR / community relationship	65
6.3 SWOT analysis of Pilanesberg National Park / community relationship	67
6.4 A framework for community - protected area relationships	69
Chapter 7 Discussion	74
Chapter 8 Conclusion	79
References	81
Appendices	93

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Road leading from Daantjie to Mpakeni	19
Figure 2: Location of the study area	20
Figure 3: Traditional homestead in Luphisi	26
Figure 4: A graphical representation of the agreement between MPB and the Mpakeni community.	33
Figure 5: Women collecting fire wood from within MGR	36
Figure 6: Location of second study area	46
Figure 7: Piggery operated by members of the Bakgatla community	58

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Direct benefits received by the Mpakeni community 1989 - 1993	38
Table 2: List of villages comprising the Bakgatla Tribal Area	47
Table 3: A framework for community -protected area relationships	71

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

BEAO	- Bakgatla Environmental Awareness Organisation
BOE	- Board of Executors
CCA	- Conservation Corporation Africa
CDO	- Community Development Organisation
KNP	- Kruger National Park
KPC	- Kangwane Parks Corporation
MGR	- Mthethomusha Game Reserve
MPB	- Mpumalanga Parks Board
NWPTB	- North West Parks and Tourism Board
RDC	- Regional District Councilor
RDP	- Reconstruction and Development Programme
TLC	- Transitional Local Council

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CHAPTER 1

THE “PEOPLE - PARK” CONUNDRUM

1.1 Introduction

The idea of conservation means different things to different people. The history of ideas about conservation is multi-faceted (Carruthers 1997). Attempts to manage the African landscape for conservation or development invariably involves direct interventions in the relationship between human beings and their environment. Post-colonially, the conservation strategies which have found favour in Africa have seldom been based upon the participation or consent of the communities whose lives they affect (Anderson and Grove 1987). In South Africa, like many other policies in the past, wildlife policies have been divisive (Carruthers 1997). Many people have a romanticised notion of conservation, but the situation in South Africa needs to be considered in the context of the greater history of the country as a whole. As historian Carruthers (1997) has pointed out, conservation in South Africa has been deeply embedded in the political history of the country. This is where the contradiction lies because the very concept of national parks, or protected areas - protecting ecosystems for the benefit of the population - have become exclusive and it has become a state duty to protect protected areas against people and against change (Carruthers 1997).

The fortress approach, which is the result of militant protection of protected areas against surrounding communities, has had the consequence that parks are ‘islands under siege’ (Carruthers 1997). The only way conservation efforts are going to succeed is if parks are seen as an integrated whole rather than as ‘islands’ (Carruthers 1997). If biodiversity conservation¹ is to be achieved, local communities have to be included and benefit from conservation (Hughes and Steenkamp 1997). What is required is to empower local people so that they can control their own resources and therefore their own lives (Davion 1996). This empowerment of local people should also allow communities to develop an understanding of the concepts of conservation and develop a sense of co-ownership of protected areas that directly impact on their lives.

With ever growing populations surrounding protected areas increasing pressure is being placed on these areas to become relevant to these people (Hughes and Steenkamp 1997; Infield 1986; Venter 1998). A new approach is needed that does not ignore the relationship between local people and wildlife, and acknowledges that not only can community involvement in wildlife schemes provide for more effective and efficient natural resource management, but can also become an instrument of rural development in its own right. As Le Quesne (1997) argued;

There seem to be two distinct strands of thought which have stimulated this change: a reassessment of the efficiency of the protectionist approach to managing national parks and protected areas; and the recognition of the potential value of wildlife as a competitive, economically viable use of land and resources in its own right.

We need to engender a new conservation ethic which continues to support protected areas and encompasses the total environment, but also deals with poverty and environmental degradation (Le Quesne 1997; Hughes and Steenkamp 1997). We need to consider the total environment, rural poverty and effective resource management as inter-linking factors in a holistic planning and development strategy. If this new approach is to be successful issues pertaining to ownership, partnerships, benefits and poverty alleviation need to be considered in terms of their appropriateness and meaningfulness to neighbouring communities.

1.2 Aims and Objectives

The aim of this study is to evaluate and compare two case studies, considering the meaningfulness of the benefits to the receiving communities, and the levels they are involved in local conservation in terms of their contribution to achieving co-operation between community and protected areas, which will contribute to sustainable development and biodiversity conservation.

By using comparisons and analyses of the meaningfulness of the benefits and the levels of participation of the two case studies, the aim will be to formulate a framework that could be used for similar communities and conservation agencies

¹ In this study biodiversity conservation refers not only to the conservation of species diversity but also to the effective functioning of ecosystems within protected areas.

engaging in activities revolving around protected area- neighbouring community relations.

The objectives of the study are thus to:

- Analyse and compare the communities' economy;
- Consider the political climate and the various organisational structures in both study areas that contribute to co-operation between communities and protected areas;
- Consider the legal standing of the communities with regards to ownership of the protected area and how this impacted on the nature of the agreements;
- Analyses the benefits each community receive from conservation, considering the degree to which they meet community needs;
- To examine the process, manner and level in which the community are involved in the local conservation practices in protected areas;
- To understand the nature of the protected area and tourism products and how this impacts on benefits and involvement of various communities;
- To investigate how protected areas are integrated into the general regional economy, and its contribution toward rural development in general.

An analysis of these issues facilitates the evaluation of beneficial and detrimental issues in the relationship between protected areas and neighbouring communities. This analysis then allows for development of a clear understanding of the criteria which are fundamental for inclusion in protected area - community relationships that will significantly contribute to the socio-economic development and biodiversity conservation of a region.

CHAPTER 2

RESEARCH METHOD

2.1 Method

The methods employed in undertaking this research involved social research techniques. Social research is often complex as much of the time the researcher is dealing with perceptions and attitudes. The understanding of perceptions and attitudes are important in analysing the complexities involved in human relationships with protected areas. Including people in the process will allow for a more accurate analysis of the situations involved.

Rapid Rural Appraisal (RRA) and Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) methods were applied in this study. This dissertation was undertaken as part of a coursework masters and was therefore undertaken within the time frame of 6 months. Time constraints therefore influenced the nature of the research methods applied. While the methods and ideas described in PRA were applied, in practice the time limitations of the study resulted in primarily RRA techniques being utilised.

PRA shifts the emphasis from an outside driven process to a community orientated method of research, where participation and allowing communities to define problems and solutions is all important (Pratt and Loizos, 1992). The essence of PRA is changes and reversals - of role, behaviour, relationship and learning (Chambers, 1997). Its purpose is to gain an understanding of the complexities of a topic rather than to gather highly accurate statistics on a list of variables. The main features of PRA, as described by Theis and Grady (1991), that were applied in this study included:

- 1) A multidisciplinary approach, this was adopted to include biophysical information together with socio-economic data to produce an integrated understanding of all the relevant issues at play in forming the people - environment relationship;
- 2) A mix of data collection techniques these included:
 - a) Semi-structured interviews - which involved using a check list of questions and issues, rather than questionnaires. Open-ended questions were asked to allow for expansion on ideas and debate;

- b) Group interviews - these were largely conducted with groups involved in development projects such as women's groups. This was considered a useful tool as it allowed people to respond informally in a group discussion, consideration was given to the size and composition of the group as these will effect the outcomes;
 - c) Seeking out the experts - this involved identifying key informants, people who were instrumental in the formation of these particular protected areas from conservation agencies, NGOs and from within the communities. Interviews were also conducted with experts in the field involved in other similar areas. Consideration was given to the fact that these were not the only sources and that other members of the community and conservation staff were considered. Here members from within conservation agencies, tourist operators and community members were targeted.
- 3) Flexibility and informality was used as dealing with social research techniques it was best to get people to relax and express their perceptions. It was important that the techniques used remained flexible when dealing with community related research as things do not often turn out as expected and it is important that the researcher does not have pre-conceived ideas;
- 4) Community participation in research, considering the nature of the study it was important to allow people to contribute by suggesting ideas and problems rather than only applying the researchers opinions and ideas;
- 5) Direct field observations - testing desk bound theories with on the ground realities, often local people will specify problems that had not been previously considered.

In carrying out the research a number of visits were made to both the study areas. These visits entailed site observations of the conditions and issues at play in both areas. It also involved a process of identifying the key informants and identifying groups and institutions operating within the areas. With regards the first study area, Mthethomusha Game Reserve, informal semi-structured interviews were conducted with members of the previous Kangwane Parks Corporation and Mpumalanga Parks Board who had been actively involved in the creation of Mthethomusha Game Reserve. These included Dr. Jeremy Anderson; Mr. Arrie Van Wyk; Mr. Herb

Bourne and Mr. Mark Howitt. Interviews were also conducted with Mpumalanga Parks Board staff members who are actively involved in the community relations with the conservation agency including Mrs. Thelma Mahlambe and Mr. Ceasor Ngoyama. Interaction with the community was approached through the Mpakeni Tribal Authority in particular Mr. Jansen Nkosi and the RDC members elected from each village. In conjunction with these interviews a number of group interviews were conducted with women's groups throughout the region and people involved in the various development projects. A visit to Bongani Lodge was also undertaken and interviews with Mr. Mark Taylor and Mr. Les Carlyse from Conservation Corporation Africa were conducted, including input from the tourism sector.

With regards the Pilanesberg National Park, interviews were conducted with members of North West Parks and Tourism Board, or those from the former Bophuthastwana Parks Board who were or still are directly involved with the Pilanesberg National Park. These included Mr. Matsima Magakgala; Mr. Hector Magome; Dr Jeremy Anderson and Mr. Johnson Maoka. Staff members involved in community relations interviewed were: Mr. Geff Moremi and Mr. Victor Magodiolo. Interaction with the community was mainly through the Bakgatla Tribal Authority and member of the former Bakgatla Community Development Organisation. Interviews were conducted with Mr. Koos Motshegoe; Mrs. Grace Masuku; Ms. Fancy Sentle; Mr. Steve Sigale and Mr. Irish Tshite (RDP member). Informal group interviews were also conducted with community groups throughout the Bakgatla community.

Visits to the case study areas and interviews with people directly involved, were supplemented with interviews with subject specialists in other locations. These included: Mr. David A'Bear (Pietermaritzburg); Ms. Koekie Maphanga (KwaZulu-Natal Nature Conservation Services) and Mr. Richard Davies (North West Parks and Tourism Board).

In addition a combination of secondary resources were used. This included an investigation of previous research in these areas and in similar areas. A number of social and scientific research studies and reports had been conducted in both the areas, and these were used to enhance the understanding of the particular situations and

assist in the analysis. This included the use of census data for the socio-economic situation.

2.2 Analysis

The data is analysed considering the objectives of the study and the main themes identified. Defining meaningful, is difficult as there are no clear-cut standards by which it can be measured (Pimbert and Pretty, 1995). For the purpose of this study meaningful will be defined in terms of what is appropriate to the particular community but still taking into account the realistic limitations of what conservation can offer communities (Breen, Mander *et.al.* 1995).

An analysis is conducted on the two case studies by means of a Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats (SWOT) analysis. SWOT analysis is an effective method of identifying the strengths and weaknesses of the case studies and to examine the opportunities and threats that they face. SWOT analysis was used in this study to provide a clear analysis of the critical issues and their associated opportunities and threats involved in both study areas. The situation in both study areas were considered under the heading Strengths, in which the advantages and positive aspects of the relationship between the relevant communities' and protected areas were considered. Under the heading Weaknesses, the negative aspects of the relationships were highlighted. Under the Opportunities heading the possibilities for improvement were expanded on. Finally the obstacles in the way of successful community - protected area relationships are listed under the heading Threats. This type of analysis allows for an evaluation of the case studies which assisted in the creation of the framework for community – protected area relationships.

2.3 The Case Studies

The case studies were selected on the basis that both represented various examples of the 'people-parks' relationship. Two areas were chosen to present a comparison of various benefits from conservation, and their meaningfulness in terms of the surrounding communities needs and sacrifices. The areas present different examples of community participation due to the differing nature of the reserves, the history of the formation of the reserves and the communities capacity and conditions. The two

study areas are Mthethomusha Game Reserve in Mpumalanga Province and Pilanesberg National Park in North West Province.

Both these areas present interesting examples of community - protected area relations and will offer useful insights into some of the pertinent aims and objectives of this study.

CHAPTER 3

COMMUNITY - PROTECTED AREA RELATIONS

3.1 Introduction

The relationship between conservation, protected areas and local communities are complex and varied. They are dependent on a number of factors and conditions.

These include the relations between the following issues:

- poverty of the neighbouring community;
- ownership of the protected area;
- partnerships between the protected area and the community;
- benefits communities receive from protected areas and
- environmental education and awareness in the surrounding communities.

3.2. Poverty

As a result of large-scale agricultural development, environmental degradation and increasing population densities, we increasingly rely on protected areas as sanctuaries for biodiversity conservation. Arguably the biggest threat facing protected areas today is the poverty of those living closest to them (Hughes and Steenkamp, 1997). The poverty of neighbouring communities resulting in pressure being placed on protected areas, has led to the realisation by conservationists that including communities in the benefits of conservation will assist in conserving biodiversity (Anderson and Grove, 1989). The challenge for modern day conservationists lies in ensuring the survival of biodiversity while meeting the needs of the rural people. Human population dynamics play an important role in the management of natural resources. Infield (1986), in a case study in KwaZulu-Natal, found that although many rural people supported the concepts of conservation the economic constraints on them are too powerful and wildlife and natural resources are destroyed out of necessity for survival. It is therefore imperative that long-term and sustained socio-economic² developments are directly linked to the wise use of the natural environment (Davion, 1996). Socio-economic development, the alleviation of poverty and environmental conservation are mutually consistent objectives, without tackling the poverty problem, continuing pressure will be placed on protected areas by

² In the context of this study socio-economic refers to the economic situation of the community whilst considering the social and cultural aspects of community life that affects the economy and how the economy affects social and cultural life.

surrounding communities. Biodiversity conservation can be enhanced if a holistic approach is adopted that links conservation to relevant development (Davion, 1996). Poverty will effect the way and the willingness of any community to participate and support conservation efforts. Participating in conservation practices and supporting protected areas is of little relevance to impoverished people who are in a daily battle for survival (Infield 1986; Lewis 1996). It therefore becomes important to consider the economic conditions of surrounding communities, their modes of production and to what extent they are reliant on the natural resources within the reserve for survival.

Protected areas need to play an important role in the regional economy of the area (Hughes and Steenkamp, 1997). An important aspect in modern day protected area management is the economic implications related to tourism activities (Koch 1997). In order for protected areas to be financially sustainable they often rely on tourism activities to promote revenue which assists the conservation operations. Tourism can play an important role in supporting and creating opportunities for socio-economic development in rural communities. Conservation agencies and tourism operators can offer support to these developments in a number of ways such as, employment, funding support, skills and training support, creation of markets and in a facilitation role (Carruthers and Zaloumis 1995). The limitations of what protected areas can realistically provide in terms of socio-economics to neighbouring communities must also be kept in mind. Poverty is only one of the integrated set of problems facing rural communities today, and the needs are often great and very intricate. Conservation should not be seen as something that can provide simple answers for complex problems (Makombe 1993).

3.3 Ownership

The legal recognition of community rights and proprietorship over natural resources is often cited as a prerequisite for successful protected area management (Lewis 1996). Ownership is an essential element in determining the involvement and support protected areas will receive from local communities (Fakir, 1996). Ownership of land will effect the bargaining power of the community and will lead to more formalised agreements (Koch, 1997). However many communities living around protected areas do not have formal legal ownership of the land, but this should not exclude them from a meaningful relationship with the protected area. Ownership should be viewed in a

broader sense than that of mere legal ownership and should be seen as crucial to any good neighbourly relation policy. Ownership will effect all aspects of the protected area - community relationship. This relationship will impact on a more intangible aspect of ownership – ‘sense of ownership’. A number of issues will impact on ‘sense of ownership’. Benefits including access and the levels of participation will all contribute to the perception of ownership on behalf of the community. The spiritual attachment to land will also impact on the communities perceptions of ownership.

3.4 Partnerships

The type of partnerships between communities and protected areas are important in dictating the role the community will play in the management of protected areas and hence the benefits they will receive from conservation. The issues dealt with in section 3.2 on ownership, will greatly affect the nature of the partnerships. When conservation agencies or private investors enter into partnerships with rural communities, these agreements need to be legally binding and acceptable to all involved (Davies 1997). This will ensure support and active participation resulting in a meaningful agreement between the stakeholders. They should specify the roles each stakeholder will play, and clearly identify the type and manner in which benefits will be accrued and distributed, to avoid misunderstandings and future tensions relating to the issue of benefits. It is important that those receiving benefits perceive them to be appropriate and worthwhile considering their development needs. Clarifying these issues from the beginning will more likely eliminate future confusion, unrealistic expectations and therefore hostility towards protected areas. Consideration must be given to the capacity of the community to participate equitably in this process, and the representativeness of the institutions through which this occurs. Often rural communities have little knowledge about formal conservation practices, and this is used as an excuse for excluding them (Koch 1997, Venter 1998). While conservation agency staff may view greater involvement, participation or managerial input by reserve neighbours, as an infringement on and perhaps a threat to their authority, this is not necessarily the case (Davion 1996). People-park interaction, rather than being about conservation agencies relinquishing control, is about furthering the objectives of conservation by linking it with development (Davion 1996). Capacity building should also not be viewed simply as formal skills or knowledge training, but by being involved can result in capacity to participate. It is also important that the institutions

through which communities communicate with protected areas are representative and accountable to the community at large.

The idea of participation is more an overall guiding philosophy of how to proceed, than a selection of specific methods. The word ‘participation’ has been used often to include anything from obligatory, through to genuinely democratic and enthusiastic, involvement in a project. Participation should be empowering not merely a process whereby people co-operate without complaint (Chambers, 1995).

3.5 Benefits

Local communities receiving benefits from protected areas is very much at the fore of any partnership between rural communities and protected area staff, as this will render the protected area useful and worthwhile to the community. Benefits will be dealt with dividing them into three groups:

- Tangible benefits;
- Intangible benefits and
- Empowering benefits.

3.5.1 Tangible Benefits

Tangible benefits need to accrue to communities for them to support conservation operations (Infield 1986). Thus making conservation an affordable land use option for neighbouring communities, not only for outsiders. Benefits need to be analysed for their meaningfulness and appropriateness to the community receiving. Tangible benefits to communities are usually in the form of employment, profit-sharing, access to natural resources within the protected area and other such direct benefits. Access to the protected area is a very important element in neighbourly relations (Infield, 1986). Communities rely on access to the reserve for various reasons including resource collection and for social or cultural purposes such as visiting grave sites and recreational use. The manner in which access is controlled and how this system was arrived upon will influence the communities’ perceptions of benefits received (Infield 1986). For access to impact positively on the lives of the rural poor, it needs to provide benefits that really impact positively on their day-to-day existence. The benefits received must also be considered against the numbers receiving and the

general need. The manner in which the control system is implemented also influences the perception of those who are collecting resource. Creative and considerate ways need to be implemented so that both parties benefit from access, and a mutual sharing relationship evolves.

Employment is often considered one of the greatest benefits communities receives from protected areas. Considering that unemployment is one of the major problems facing most rural areas in South Africa today (Hughes and Steenkamp 1997), employment opportunities do impact positively on rural communities. However, the employment created by protected areas is often limited in numbers in relation to the unemployment figures. The nature of the employment offered to communities is often of a menial nature with little opportunity for advancement. What is required, is to use employment as an opportunity to train community members in conservation practices and management positions so that in the future they can take over activities in a meaningful manner (Pimbert and Pretty 1995). This allows for empowerment rather than simply creating employment at the lowest levels.

Profit sharing of monetary turnover of protected areas is important in maintaining good relations between communities and protected areas. Ideally this should take the form of a percentage of the profits or turnover rather than a fixed lump sum. This gives the community an incentive to support the activities of the protected area as its success will have direct implication for the community. The amount should be calculated between all stakeholders and should be transparent and acceptable to all. What the community representatives do with the money will influence the perceptions of the rest of the community as to the meaningfulness and appropriateness of the protected area. Although this is an important aspect of community - protected area relations, this on its own could result in dependency by communities on protected areas (Davies 1997; Pimbert and Pretty 1995).

Direct benefits are very important in sustaining the short term viability of a project. Communities need to receive tangible benefits in order for them to perceive protected areas as worthwhile (Infield 1986). However, the benefits the community receive need to be expanded on by more long term and empowering benefits for the project to be sustainable. These direct benefits are important in keeping good relations with the

community and play a vital role in the economic development of the area, but should not be the only form of benefits as often direct benefits creates dependency and do not facilitate an empowering process.

3.5.2 Intangible Benefits

Benefits can also be of a more intangible nature involving more indirect benefits such as being involved in management and decision making. This is a very important aspect of community - protected area relations because not only will it effect the sense of ownership it will allow an element of control for communities (Koch 1997; Lewis 1996). It is important that communities are not simply passive beneficiaries of a stream of benefits, but that they are actively involved in the decisions that impact on their lives (Pimbert and Pretty 1995). The institutional structures of the community will influence these benefits as well as the capacity of the community to influence management (Carruthers and Zaloumis 1995). The lack of formal conservation knowledge should not be a reason for conservation agencies to exclude rural communities from management. It is a myth on behalf of many conservation agencies to assume that rural people have no knowledge of conservation. Indigenous knowledge exist and should be included in management structure of protected areas (Makombe 1993). Often it is difficult to access this knowledge as only a few people within the community might know this for example, but good relations between protected area staff and communities will allow access to these kinds of information by conservation agencies (A'Bear *pers. comm.* 1999)³. Incorporating indigenous knowledge systems into management will impact on the community's perceptions of being able to influence the process and will lead to a more positive relationship (McIvor 1995). This will allow local people to be more integrated into the protected areas management policy formation, and ensure that it reflects how they believe things could be done while still not detracting from the overall responsibility that the conservation authority have with regards to conserving biodiversity.

3.5.3 Empowerment

Benefits should also lead to empowerment, resulting in people controlling their own lives. These empowering benefits can include entrepreneurial development,

³ Mr. A'Bear Integrated Planning Services, Pietermaritzburg 1999

environmental education and awareness and should result in communities attaining capacity to control their total environment (Davion 1996). Capacity building described by Carruthers and Zaloumis (1993), is the empowerment of communities and the improvement of their quality of life by identifying and creating abilities and involving them in decision making about matters affecting their lives in a sustainable way. This must be developed through a process of education and training, both formal and informal, skills transference, improvement of skills and knowledge, information dissemination, provision of support and resourcefulness, building collective community confidence, the acceptance of responsibility, accountability and self-reliance. Often in rural development projects in the past, participation has centred on encouraging local people to sell their labour in return for food, cash or materials (Pimbert and Pretty 1995). Yet these material incentives distort perceptions, create dependencies, and give the misleading impression that local people are supportive of externally driven initiatives. This kind of paternalism undermines sustainability (Pimbert and Pretty 1995). As little effort is made to build local skills, interests and capacity, local people are not able to maintain or support new practices once the flow of incentives stops (Pimbert and Pretty 1995). It is for this reason that ownership and partnership, dealt with in section 3.2 and 3.3, are so important in ensuring meaningful and proactive developments. These projects should promote improved natural resource management, provide communities with skills and resources needed to increase their incomes thereby enabling the protection of natural resources. They should also encourage substitution of unsustainable systems for the conservation of the resource base (Lewis 1996). While these kinds of development projects occur outside of the protected area they should not occur in isolation of the activities and policies within the protected area. Their primary goal is to promote the development of sustainable land use practices and thereby enhance the conservation of biodiversity, by focusing on the social and economic needs of the communities (Lewis 1996). The support conservation agencies give to development projects in terms of funds, training and capacity building could be seen as a direct benefit, however, these kinds of benefits should lead to empowerment. A distinction needs to be made between development projects that are dependent on external support, and those that are initiated and controlled by the community. The latter are empowering development initiatives, but often are borne out of assistance from external sources. Development initiatives need to focus on the linkages between conservation and

development, that is, to identify where the conservation and economic development goals intersect and then build on these common factors to develop projects from which the community can achieve sustainable development (Lewis 1996).

Development projects should attempt to alleviate poverty and build capacity, thus relieving pressure on protected areas. Development is not something that one group can do for another group. It is a shared effort among equal partners that demands respect for indigenous systems of knowledge and organisation (McIvor 1995).

3.6 Environmental Education and Awareness

Environmental awareness and education is essential in assisting people to use their environment sustainably, thus an imperative part of the development process. A holistic approach is needed, encouraging sustainable living practices, which will allow people to meet their basic needs (Davion, 1996; Rammutla and Shongwe 1993).

Brown and Wyckoff-Baird (1994) define conservation education's goal as: to improve natural resource management and reduce environmental degradation. It tries to (a) increase people's awareness of the value of natural resources, both now and in the future, along with the ecological processes that maintain these resources; (b) show people what threatens the well-being of their environment and how they can contribute to its improved management; and (c) motivate them to change their behaviour in a way that leads to improved environmental management.

This is however, only one aspect of education and awareness. Education is not only about rural communities learning from conservation agencies, it also involves reversals. Rural communities have many knowledge base systems that have been used for years in natural resource management (Boonzaaier and Labuschagne, 1998; Makombe, 1993). These practices should be included into the conservation agencies management policy, as often they are ecologically and economically more suited to the particular environment and will enable local people to participate in a more meaningful way in issues involving the actual conservation practices.

Education is imperative in keeping the channels of communication open between all stakeholders (Makombe, 1993). It is important that all involved realise the potentials and limitations, so that no unrealistic expectations are experienced. Dialogue and

interchange between reserve staff and local communities will facilitate trust building and learning processes among protected area staff and neighbours. Greater understanding among reserve staff of rural cultures and philosophies on people-environment relations will allow neighbour's systems to be harnessed to conservation ends.

Environmental education and awareness programme can therefore be seen as an integral part of protected area - neighbouring community relations. Environmental awareness campaigns should be embarked upon by conservationist as they have the technical know-how to assist communities with environmental conservation skills. But at the same time be open and willing to consider learning from the community. Education and awareness should therefore be seen in a holistic light involving conservation knowledge exchanges but also skills training and capacity building to ensure sustainable development and to enable communities to control their own destinies (Davion, 1996). Education should not be top-down and prescriptive, but rather an empowering process for communities. It should be seen more as a process of preparation for the full exercise of peoples' rights than of limited understanding of physical ecosystems' operation (Feldmann 1993). Empowerment is the process of enabling people to meet their own needs and to have control over their future. Fundamental to this process is a sustainable relationship between people and nature - sustainable living. Sustainable living is thus a practical consequence and indicator of empowerment (Davion 1996). Through education and awareness an understanding of, and improved more sustainable living practices can become a reality.

3.7 Conclusion

Conservation agencies, tourism operators and neighbouring communities should be viewed as part of the same community. Although separate stakeholders have particular needs and goals, sustainable development and biodiversity conservation should be the ultimate goals of all involved. This will only be attainable if goals are shared and partnerships are established which are equitable, accountable and acceptable to all. Protected area staff see local development as a means towards achieving conservation, whilst to the other stakeholders conservation is a means towards achieving local development and the interaction of all stakeholders should be

centred around the issues which characterise the overlap between these divergent interests (Venter 1998).

It therefore becomes clear that many factors impact on and influence the relationship between protected areas and neighbouring communities. These need to be considered not as separate factors but rather as an integrated whole. After considering these issues a number of questions can be asked to consider protected area - neighbouring community relations in light of what is meaningful. These include: Does the practice of conservation in the protected area benefit the relevant communities meaningfully? How does the process and manner in which the protected areas were established and operate include the community? Are partnerships and agreements legal, representative, transparent, inclusive and do they encourage community support? Does the protected area play a significant role in the regional social, economic and environmental structures of the surrounding communities?

The successful inclusion of as many positive aspects of these issues in the protected area - community relationship will contribute positively towards the long term co-operation between protected areas and communities. This co-operation will be beneficial to all parties involved and will thus contribute to the socio-economic development of the region and assist with the conservation of biodiversity.

CHAPTER 4

MTHETHOMUSHA GAME RESERVE

4.1 Introduction

Mthethomusha Game Reserve (MGR) is an 8000 ha protected area situated approximately 30 km east of Nelspruit in Mpumalanga Province (Figure 2). This mountainous protected area borders the Kruger National Park (KNP) on the eastern side along the Nsikazi river (Figure 1). The area has four settlements adjacent to it; Matsulu to the South West, Luphisi to the north-east, Mpakeni to the south-west and Daantjie to the north-west. This rugged and scenically beautiful area is dominated by large granite domes, boulder outcrops which rise to just over 1000 metres and valleys as low as 488 metres (KPC 19987). The great variation in topography has resulted in an impressive diversity of plant and animal life. This makes the area important for biodiversity conservation as well as aesthetically attractive to tourism. (See map, appendix 1 page 94)

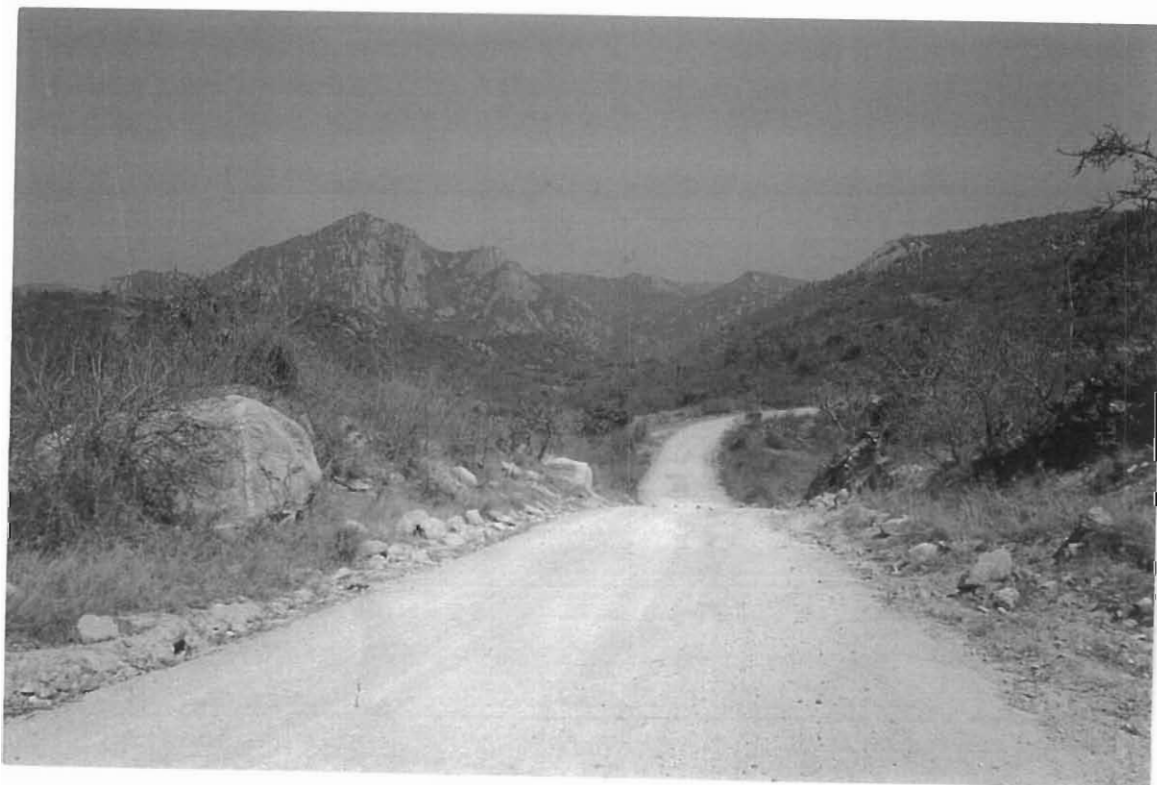


Figure 1: Road Leading from Daantjie to Mpakeni.

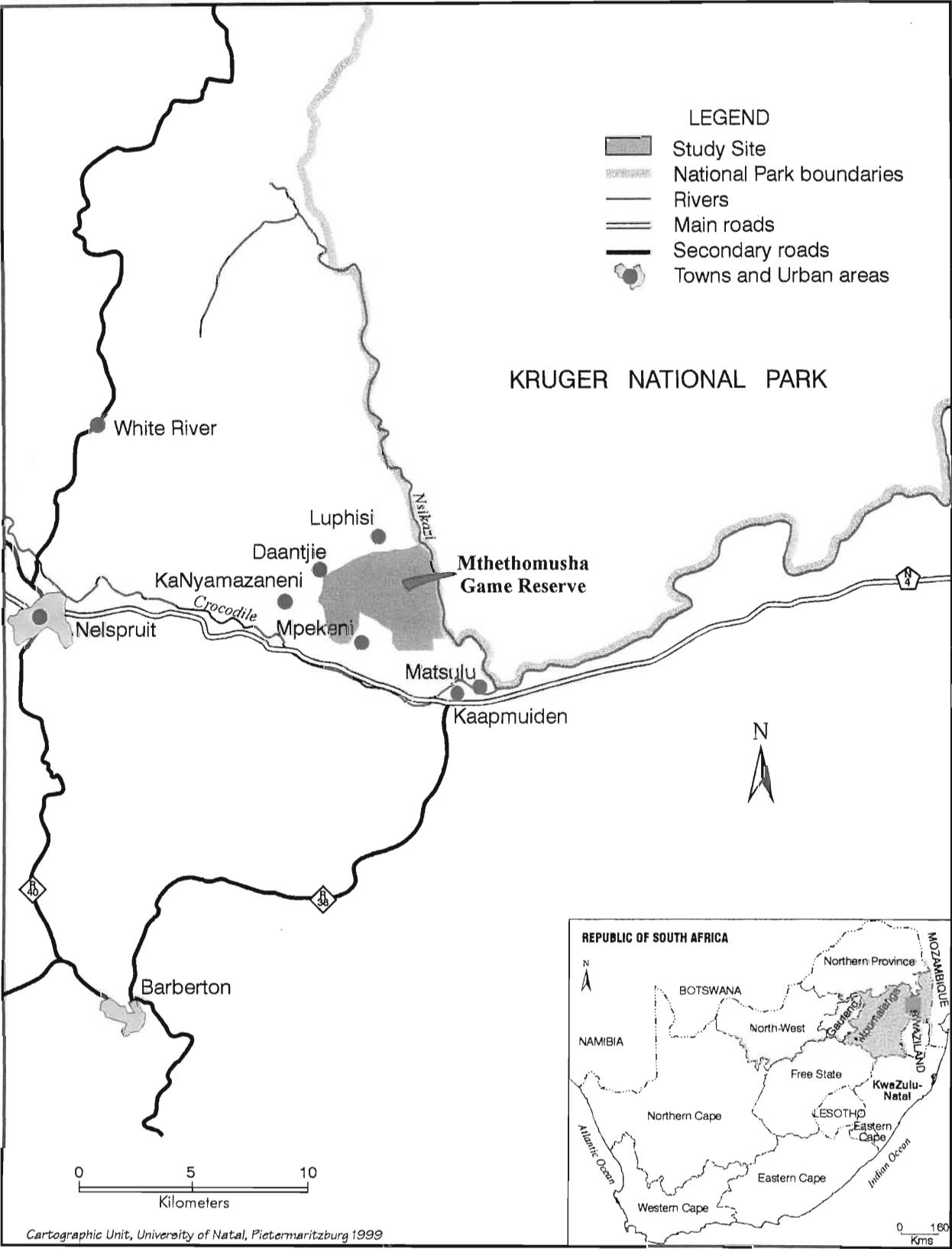


Figure 2 : Mthethomusha Game Reserve

4.2 Socio-economic Situation

It has become clear that careful consideration of those living around protected areas is essential for successful conservation of biodiversity (Hughes and Steenkamp 1997; Infield 1986; Lewis 1996; Venter 1998). It is impossible to effectively manage the ecological dynamics of a protected area in isolation from the surrounding community (Venter 1998). Rather, conservation agencies need to apply a broader landscape ecology approach to the management of protected areas. Within this context, the protected area staff need to work together with the community members to manage the ecological linkages between the protected area and the surrounding areas (Venter 1998). In this light, a description of the socio-economic situation of the communities surrounding MGR is essential in understanding the relationship between the protected area and the community.

The dense human settlement around MGR has to a large extent been the result of apartheid policies and social engineering (Odendal 1991). This area formally fell under the Kangwane homeland authority, whose tribal and political development was strongly linked to Swaziland (Odendal 1991). The majority of the population, 93%, in this area are Swazi, or isiSwati speaking according to the 1996 census data (HSRC, n.d.). The settlements in this area are growing at a rapid rate, with census figures indicating that between 1980 and 1991 the population of Kangwane increased by 400% (Venter 1998).

Today the area falls under the administration of Mpumalanga Province, in the region referred to as the Lowveld. Mpumalanga is one of the most economically prosperous regions in the country with a diversified regional economy, yet many of the rural areas, especially those located in the former homelands, are chronically poor (Grossman and Koch 1995). The regional economy of the Lowveld area consists of a number of small mines in the vicinity, a vibrant commercial agriculture based on sugar, sub-tropical fruits, citrus, vegetables, forestry and tobacco and an ever increasing tourism industry. These activities are generally operated by the private sector and impact little on impoverished communities in the region, except for the creation of employment (Grossman and Koch 1995). This prosperity is not evenly distributed among all sectors of the population, with many rural people living in poverty. Subsistence farming is widespread in the communal areas of former

Kangwane and there is heavy reliance on harvesting of natural products to boost family's subsistence levels - even though wage labour on farms, in the manufacturing sector and on the mines is the major source of family income (Grossman and Koch 1995).

4.2.1 Settlements surrounding MGR

When considering the relationships between rural communities and protected areas it is important that an understanding of the term community is reached. How the community is defined is essential in understanding the relationship with the protected area (Sharpe 1998). In this case study the community is defined by a political area, that of the Mpakeni Tribal Area. However the geographical location of settlements in terms of their proximity to MGR also need to be considered. The settlements surrounding the reserve include: Matsulu which forms part of the Lomshilo Tribal Authority, and the Mpakeni Tribal Authority consisting of the villages of Daantjie, Luphisi, Mpakeni and Zwelisha B. These settlements are not uniform in requirements and reliance on MGR for meeting certain needs. The demographic profiles between villages vary quite extensively thus resulting in differing development needs and priorities.

The relationship with the MGR also differs according to previous use of the land, proximity to the reserve, resource utilisation and formal ownership over the land in question. The Mpakeni Tribal Authority is the legal custodian of the approximately 8 000 ha of land which comprises MGR. This land was allocated to the Mpakeni Tribal Authority in terms of the Department of Bantu Administration and Development proclamation 1291 dated 17 August 1962 (Odendaal 1991). The Mpakeni community is thus included in formal partnerships and receive direct benefits from the protected area. Matsulu has no legal claim to the land, however this community directly borders MGR on the south west side. Due to its proximity to MGR and its socio-economic development needs, Matsulu residents could place pressure on the protected area if totally excluded from all activities within MGR. In many cases those communities that are directly affected by the formation of the Reserve are the ones who receive the least benefits because they are often the poorest and lack the capacity to activate for equal distribution.

4.2.1.1 Mpakeni Tribal Area

Of the villages that make up the Mpakeni Tribal Authority Zwelisha B is the only village that does not border the reserve directly. For the purpose of this study, Zwelisha B will be included with the assessment of Daantjie as it expresses the same socio-economic profile, and due to the growth of both villages they are merging into one making it difficult to separate the two. The communities surrounding MGR are among the highest density population settlements in the former Kangwane region of the apartheid era (Odendal 1991). The total population of the Mpakeni Tribal Area as indicated by the 1996 census is 51 540 (HSRC n.d.). The villages are not uniform in socio-economic conditions and needs. Within the Mpakeni Tribal Authority Daantjie is the largest and the most urban in nature with relatively good infrastructural development (Odendal 1991). Daantjie makes up 86% of the total population of the Mpakeni Tribal Area (HSRC n.d.). The village lies on the south-eastern border of MGR. Daantjie's population is increasing at an alarming rate. This influx of people places an extra burden on the already scarce resources, and employment opportunities. Luphisi is found on the north-eastern border of MGR. It is estimated that 8% of the total population of the Mpakeni Tribal Area reside in Luphisi (HSRC n.d.). The village of Mpakeni is the smallest settlement within the Tribal Area with approximately 350 houses and accounts for 6% of the total population of Mpakeni Tribal Area.

The area as a whole has a largely low level of formal education, with the majority of the population not holding qualifications higher than standard 5. The 1996 Census indicated that 31% of the population had no formal education, 19% had obtained between a standard 5 -7 and only 9% had standard 10 (HSRC n.d.). Odendal (1991) indicated that the residents of Daantjie have a slightly higher education level than those people residing in Luphisi and Mpakeni. However, it appears that a large portion of the total population of the area are effectively illiterate.

As in most rural areas in South Africa, unemployment is a major concern (Hughes and Steenkamp 1997). The unemployment rate in the Mpakeni Tribal Area is approximately 76% (HSRC n.d.). This indicates that unemployment is possibly the most pressing problem facing the area. Unemployment has been exacerbated since

1990, with rapid population growth (Mahlombe *pers. comm.* 1998)⁴. The proximity to the major centres in Mpumalanga such as Nelspruit, White River and Malelane serves as a draw-card, added to the fact that the N4 passes close by and access to these areas is relatively easy. The massive unemployment has resulted in 73% of the population not having a fixed income (HSRC n.d.). Economic development in the region is desperately required to improve the condition of those living in the area.

The accessibility into an area plays a major role in the socio-economic development of that region. It offers the community levels of mobility and affects the development levels of communities. Accessibility into the Mpakeni Tribal Area varies depending on the village. Daantjie has a relatively well integrated network of roads linking it to KaNyamazane and Nelspruit. The main roads into Daantjie are tarred and there are good gravel roads linking Daantjie to Luphisi and Mpakeni. Mpakeni is the most isolated of the villages geographically. There is only one road that leads in and out of Mpakeni, this is one factor that has seriously hampered development in this village.

The availability of water in all villages is of a major concern to the residents. The area has a mean annual rainfall of 750 mm (KPC 1987). There are a number of small drainage lines, however the streams carry very little water. This is because they drain a granite area which is characteristically devoid of underground resources or recharge areas (KPC 1987). The steepness of the terrain also allows for little opportunity for rainfall retention or similar processes which would regulate stream flow (KPC 1987). It is imperative that the supply of water to the area is addressed. Daantjie is supplied with water by the Nelspruit Transitional Local Council (TLC). Luphisi and Mpakeni have problems with water supply. The Nelspruit TLC have made provisions for the establishment of a water pipe to Luphisi, but is not in operation as yet. Mpakeni has two boreholes to supply the residents with water. However these supplies are reported to still not be sufficient to supply the needs of the community (Ngomame *pers. comm.* 1998)⁵. Electricity is supplied to the villages of Daantjie and Luphisi but Mpakeni is not electrified and thus heavily reliant on the reserve for fuelwood (Ngomame; Mahlombe *pers. comm.* 1998).

⁴ Mrs. Thelma Mahlombe Community Liaison Officer for MGR

All the villages are serviced by clinics, however Mpakeni residents have to rely on a mobile clinic which has a unpredictable schedule making visitation times difficult to establish (Mahlombe *pers. comm.* 1998). The nearest permanent clinic for the residents of Mpakeni is in Daantjie, but the lack of reliable transportation means that this service is not easily accessible. There are three clinics in Daantjie and easy access to regional hospitals such as Rob Ferrera Hospital in Nelspruit and Themba Hospital in White River is available.

It can therefore be established that most of the inhabitants in Daantjie have direct access to modern amenities such as clinics, schools, transport and a variety of shops. The majority of people living in Daantjie live an urban lifestyle. The 1996 census figures indicated that 91% of the people live in formal houses and only 5% reside in traditional huts indicating the more urban nature of the settlement (HSRC n.d). However, those living on the eastern section of Daantjie do not have infrastructure supplying resources such as water and electricity and are thus more reliant on MGR for natural resources. In Odendal's study (1991), he indicated that the people living in Luphisi exhibited a more traditional way of life in comparison to those living in Daantjie (Figure 3). Luphisi residents also rely on the reserve for resources more than the more urban Daantjie. Mpakeni is the poorest and the least developed village (Odendal 1991). This can be attributed to a number of factors including the geographical isolation of the area. The residents of Mpakeni were the most affected by the creation of MGR. Most of the land incorporated to form the reserve was originally utilised by the people living in the village of Mpakeni. This village being the poorest of the villages, relied on the natural resources within the reserve for survival, and many grave sites belonging to the people of Mpakeni were found in MGR. They therefore have a high dependency on the reserve for both natural resources as well as a means to promote economic development.

⁵ Mr. Fannie Ngomame is the Regional Development Councillor (RDC) member for Mpakeni

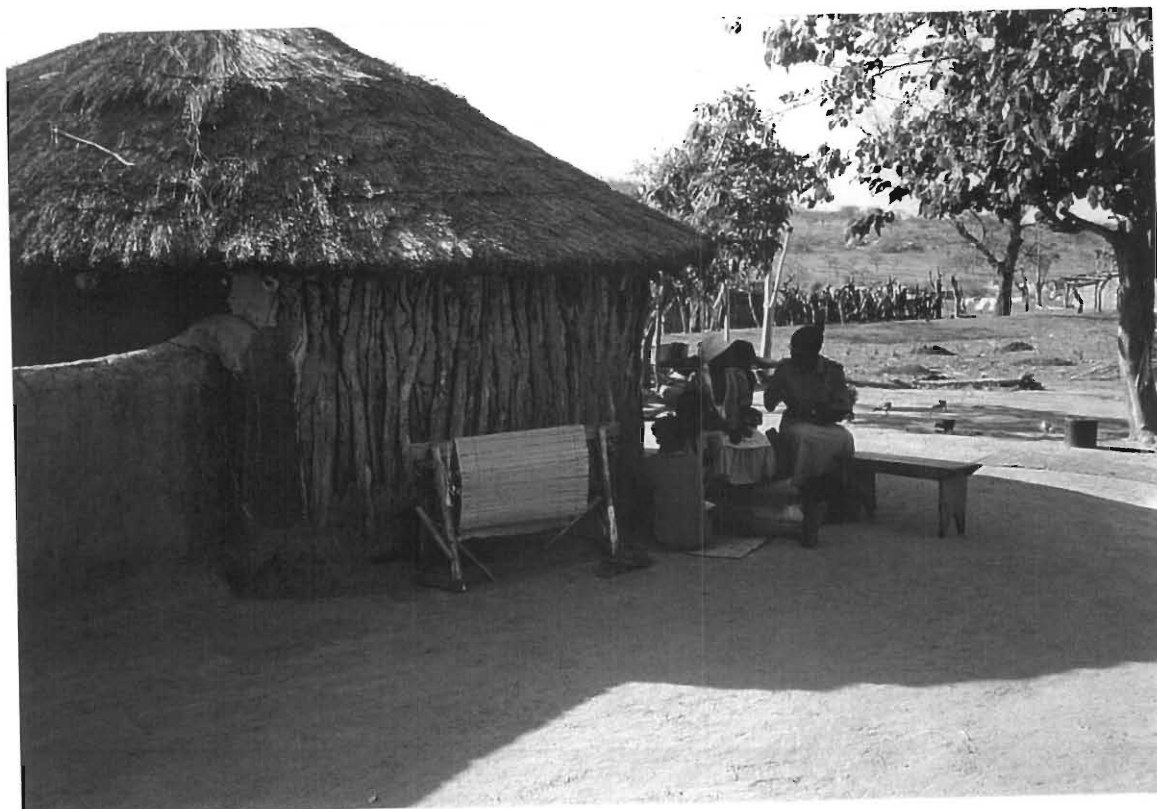


Figure 3: A Traditional Homestead in Luphisi

4.2.1.2 Lomshilo Tribal Area

Matsulu although not part of the Mpakeni Tribal Authority, borders the MGR to the south west. It is part of the Lomshilo Tribal Authority. It has ‘no legal claim’ to the area, and therefore does not benefit from the trust fund or from access into the reserve (Anderson; Howitt *pers. comm.* 1998)⁶. However, to exclude it from any sort of relationship with MGR would be detrimental because it directly borders on the reserve and negative perception of the protected area by these people could result in negative actions towards MGR. This settlement also exhibits high density relatively poverty stricken populations (Mamba *pers. comm.* 1998)⁷ with development needs similar to the areas described above.

In the establishment of MGR, MPB realised the potential influence that the resident of Matsulu could play in the successful management of the reserve and thus tried to include them in some form of agreement (Anderson *pers. comm.* 1998). This resulted

⁶ Dr. Anderson formally from KPC, now a Consultant with International Conservation Services. Mr. Howitt, Warden of MGR.

⁷ Mr. Mamba, ANC chairperson for Matsulu

in a cattle - game project being established in the Matsulu side of the reserve. This acts as a buffer zone, and allows the Matsulu community to graze their livestock in this area (Anderson *pers. comm.* 1998). The notion of a cattle - game project is to promote many browser species within an area. This allows traditional pastoral practices to coincide with game farming while potentially benefiting the community economically through consumptive or non consumptive activities. This project has not been a success, due to the fact that no formal agreement was established added to political disputes between the Lomshilo Tribal Authority and the RDC resulting in neglect of this project (Howitt *pers. comm.* 1998). Despite its failure the project is still in operation and the potential exists for it to be operated efficiently, thus including the residents of Matsulu in activities of MGR.

4.2.2 Conclusion

It becomes clear that high density relatively poor populations surround MGR. These need to be considered and included in the general management objectives of the protected area if the goal of biodiversity conservation is to be reached. Sustainable development initiatives are necessary to improve the conditions of those living around MGR, and these initiatives need the participation of those whose lives they will affect. This participation calls for rural people's direct involvement in development activities while at the same time promoting both economic and social development (Wainwright and Wehrmeyer 1998).

4.3 Political Structure and Community Institutions

It has become widely accepted that communities need to participate in the initiatives that affect their lives (McIvor 1995; Wainwright and Wehrmeyer 1998; Davion 1996; Lewis 1996). It is important that we understand the political structure and community institutions within a particular areas as these institution usually act as the vehicle for participation (Venter 1998). These will directly influence the relationship between a protected area and the community. In order to develop an approach which will be inclusive and effectively target the goals of community participation, conservation agencies must seek to harness existing neighbour systems.

The Mpakeni Tribal Authority is the official institutional structure within the community surrounding the MGR (Nkosi *pers. comm.* 1998)⁸. Since the 1995 local government elections, democratically elected regional development councillors have been included in the political structures of the area (Nkosi *pers. comm.* 1996). These new structures work in accordance with the Tribal Authority. Much of the reserve-neighbour interactions are mediated through the Tribal Authority (Howitt; Nkosi *pers. comm.* 1998). When MGR was established the negotiations took place with the Tribal Authority and Kangwane Parks Corporation (KPC). In 1996 a forum was established to try make the interaction more representative of the general public (Howitt *pers. comm.* 1998). This forum consists of two democratically elected members from each village, three members from MPB and representatives from the Tribal Authority (Nkosi *pers. comm.* 1998). This process of engaging many individuals is fundamental to the empowerment process, as it is hoped that a wider audience will be reached making the whole process more accountable and representative (Davion 1996).

4.4 Relationship with MGR

4.4.1 Ownership

The Mpakeni People are legal custodians over the land incorporated into the MGR. This has greatly influenced the formal agreements between the community and the conservation agency, which have been included as part of the lease agreement. Legal ownership of the land does not necessitate that the agreements are equitable, accountable and representative. Sense of ownership needs to be instilled in the surrounding community to relate to the protected area. However the positive aspect of having a formal agreement between MGR management and the community has resulted in a more structured approach. Policy and institutional structures have been created to enable participation.

Formal agreements between communities and protected areas are essential for any community protected area relation to be successful. The agreement needs to be acceptable to all and binding, clearly specifying the benefits and the role each stakeholder will play in the management of the protected area. The terms of the agreement were negotiate between the then KPC and Chief Charles Bongani

⁸ Mr. Jansen Nkosi is the Mpakeni Tribal Authority Representative

Mpakenias and the outcome was ratified by the Tribal Council (Odendal 1991). The policy adopted by all stakeholders was that all natural resources be regarded as renewable and that the local people be allowed to derive some form of profit or benefit from such resources.

Although MGR was set up in 1984, and the tourist lodge was build during this period, the terms of the agreement were finalised in 1992 (Van Wyk *pers. comm.* 1998). With the permission of the Government and the Mpakeni Tribal Authority, the KPC/MPB have developed and operate the property as a wildlife and nature reserve and have erected certain buildings on the property, which are operated as a game lodge known as Bongani Mountain Lodge. (See Tribal Resolution, Appendix 2, page 95). The reserve was initially conceived of as a 'tribal resource area' - an area of wilderness set aside by the Traditional Authority so that natural products could be harvested on a sustainable basis (Odendal 1991). There have been a number of changes since the initial agreement was reached between the Mpakeni Tribal Authority and the former KPC, including the amalgamation of the KPC into the Mpumalanga Parks Board (MPB). These changes have taken place largely because of economic constraints and the political changes within the country and the province in particular (Van Wyk *pers. comm.* 1998).

The Government and the Mpakeni Tribal Authority have entered into an agreement with the KPC/MPB in terms of which the KPC/MPB leases the property for a period of 99 years (from the period 1 March 1993 to 28 February 2092), and the rights of the Tribal Authority during the period of the lease are clearly defined (Lease Agreement 1992).

According to the agreement, KPC/MPB is required to pay rent to the Tribal Authority as follows:

- (a) The tribe will earn R5 000.00/p.m. for the first 12 months, thereafter 108% of the R 5000 for the following 12 months. This amount will then increase each year by 10%. For each twelve month period thereafter 25% of that amount payable by the lease in terms of the sub lease.

- (b) Fifty percent of the income of trophy buffalo hunted in the MGR accrue to the tribe as well as all the carcasses of these animals. Income for 1993 financial year = R39 000.00 (Lease Agreement 1992).

The agreement also stipulates that in carrying out its conservation duties and management of the reserve, the KPC/MPB shall regularly liaise with the Tribal Authority. This does not allow for the community to actively participate in the management structures. This agreement allows for decisions to be taken externally from the community and then the community are consulted about the decision. In this scenario external agents define both the problems and solutions and may modify these in the light of the community's perceptions, however, it does not concede any share in decision - making.

However, the agreement does provide for the establishment of a management committee. This committee allows for the community to be represented in the management structures of MGR. The conservation management committee has been in operation since 1994 (Van Wyk; Nkosi *pers. comm.* 1998). Representatives from MPB, the Mpakeni Tribal Authority and the tourist operators sit on this committee. This has effectively created the structures for interactive management, but how this relates in real life needs to be assessed.

The KPC/MPB and Board Of Executors (BOE) have entered into a sub-lease for a further 50 years (Lease Agreement 1992). In terms of this lease the BOE, which represents the private sector, can operate Bongani Lodge for its own account or employ a third party to operate Bongani Lodge on behalf of BOE. This sub-lease agreement does not consider the community at all, thus excluding the community from any meaningful partnership with the private sector tourism operators. The agreement today is between BOE and Conservation Corporation Africa (CCA), who took over the lease in 1996. The agreement stipulates that the MPB will be responsible for the management of the wildlife resources and maintenance and upkeep of MGR. The KPC/MPB took out a loan to build the lodge facilities. The sub-lease agreement stipulates that on registration of the lease an amount of R4 500 000 will be paid to the KPC/MPB to pay back the loan to the First National Bank that was used to

build the lodge. In the interim period before the lease becomes registered, the private operator will pay the following to KPC:

Month 1 - 12	R41 667.00/p.m. + 0
Month 13 -24	R46 250.00/p.m. + 50% on interest of R4 500 000.00
Month 25 36	R46 250.00/p.m. + R1 000.00/p.m. starting with month 25 adding another R1 000.00 each month + interest (15.25%) on R4 500 000.00

If after 36 months the lease is not registered, the private operator can have the option of:

1. pulling out of the agreement, or
2. paying R4 500 000.00 into a trust. The interest on this investment will accrue to the KPC/MPB. A rental of 4% of monthly turnover with a minimum of R10 000/p.m. will be payable to the KPC/MPB, or
3. pay the interest at 4% over prime rate to the KPC/MPB – R46 250.00 + R1 000.00/p.m (Lease Agreement 1992).

If the lease is registered after 36 months the R4 500 000 will be paid and a monthly rent of 4% of monthly turnover with a minimum of R10 000.00/p.m. will be paid to the KPC/MPB (Lease Agreement 1992). The sub-lease allows for the sole traversing rights of the private company. The community is not included in any sort of profit sharing agreement with the tourism operator thus limiting a possible source of income.

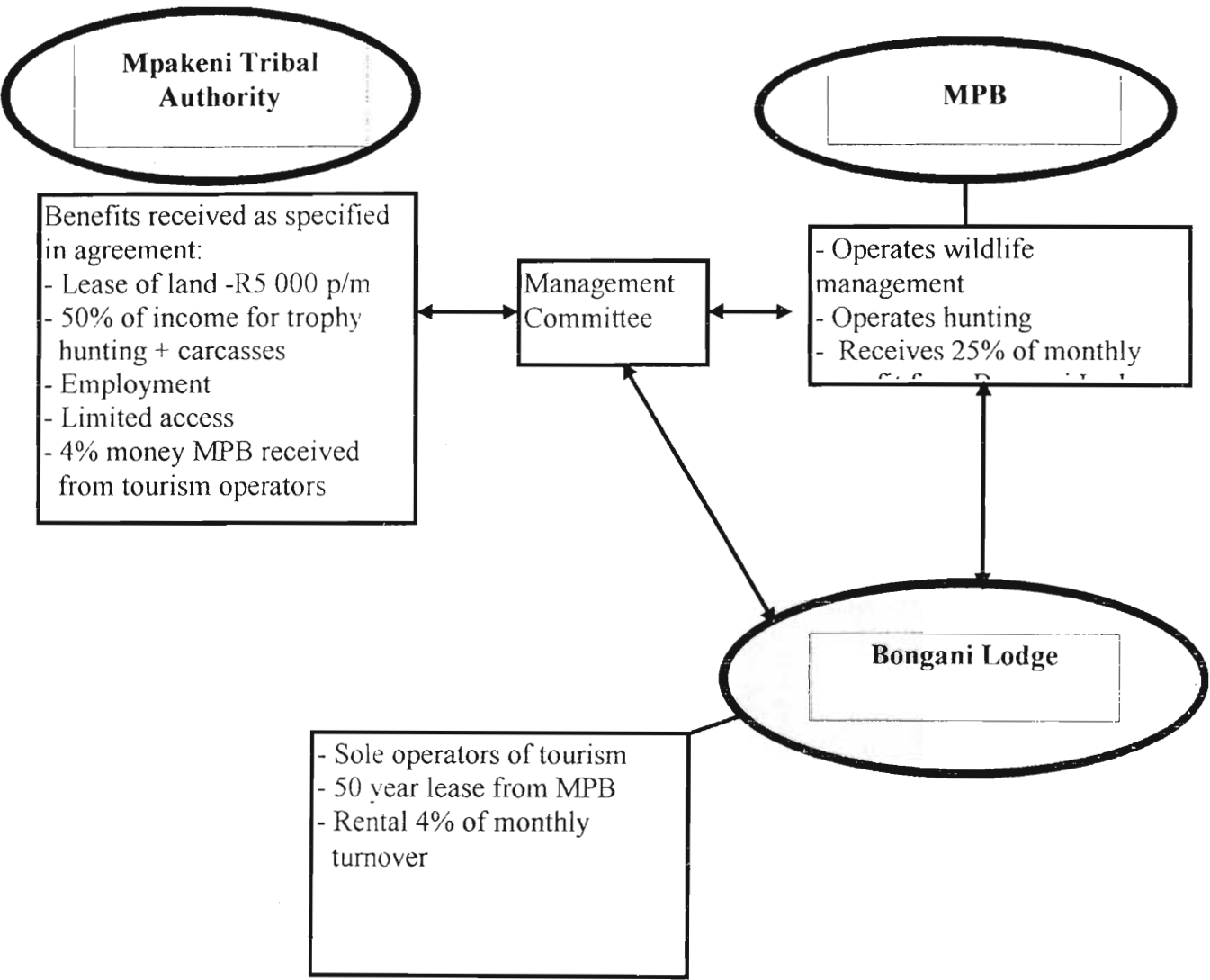
The agreement states that the KPC/MPB will attempt to provide job opportunities for the members of the Mpakeni Tribe in the reserve and at Bongani Lodge. MPB has adopted a policy of employing locals first. However, concerning the lodge operations, the agreement specifies that BOE, or the camp operators should use their best efforts to employ and procure the employment of members of the Mpakeni community, but are not obliged to employ members of the community if BOE or the camp operators consider that another person should be employed. This is a major shortfall, as the tourism sector has the potential to create a number of jobs for the community. The jobs that are provided are of a menial nature with no training policy to promote empowering employment opportunities.

According to the agreement the only right the Mpakeni Tribal Authority, and the members of the Mpakeni community have, besides that of the rent, is the right to extract firewood and thatching grass from the property. The agreement is that the members of the Mpakeni Tribe shall be entitled to reasonable access to the property to extract firewood and thatching grass at such times, in such places and to such extent as the KPC/MPB may from time to time authorise (Lease Agreement 1992). MPB shall be solely responsible for regulating the quantity of firewood and thatching grass which the members of the Mpakeni community may extract, the times and areas at and from which the firewood and thatching grass may be extracted and the extent to which and the manner in which the members will have access to the reserve for this purpose, and the MPB shall ensure that the members of the community are informed of, and adhere to those regulations (Lease Agreement 1992). It is also the responsibility of MPB to control access to the reserve in a manner which does not interfere with or adversely affect the operations of Bongani Lodge. MPB must also consult with the Lodge in respect thereof.

Because of the political changes that have taken place over the years since the agreement was drawn up the lease has not as yet been registered with the Department of Land Affairs. It is hoped that it will be registered by 1999 (Van Wyk *pers. comm.* 1998)⁹.

⁹ Mr. A Van Wyk Resource Manager - Mpumalanga Parks Board

Figure 4: A graphical representation of the agreement.



4.5 Benefits

When considering the benefits the Mpakeni community receive from MGR these will be divided into:

- Tangible benefits;
- Intangible benefits and
- Empowering benefits.

4.5.1 Tangible Benefits

The lease agreement has resulted in the formalisation of a number of direct benefits. The primary benefit being that of a fixed rent paid into a trust fund. The Mpakeni Tribal Authority and the forum identify projects, which are then prioritised, and the proposals sent through to MPB. The MPB is a co-signatory for the account, thus ensuring responsible use of the money. MPB therefore has a measure of control over the allocation of funds. Other monetary benefits that accrue to the community come from hunting operations. MPB control this activity identifying animals that could be hunted without affecting the sustainability of conservation operations within the reserve. The community receive 50% of the profits from the hunting operations, which amounted to R39 000 in 1993 (Van Wyk 1994).

Employment is another direct benefit the community receive from the reserve. Unemployment is ranked as one of the major problems facing the community today. MPB employs approximately 60 people and Bongani Lodge the same amount. The salaries in 1993 amounted to the following:

- a) Salaries Bongani lodge = R519 200
- b) Salaries MGR = R531 389 (Van Wyk 1994)

While IIED (1994) has suggested that employment opportunities lower negative perceptions of protected areas by neighbouring communities, it would seem that jobs currently generated by MGR and the Bongani Lodge are exclusive and accrue to a narrow section of the local population. However, the creation of any jobs is welcome in this community (Ngomame; Mahlambe *pers. comm.* 1998).

In terms of community access to natural resources within the protected area, the community is allowed limited access controlled by MPB staff (Van Wyk 1994). The access system is worked out by MPB and controlled by them according to scientific management strategies to ensure sustainable resource collection. Because of the high density population surrounding MGR, the reserve could not even at optimum, provide for the natural resource needs of the surrounding community. Resources that are collected within the reserve include water, firewood, thatch grass and medicinal plants (Van Wyk 1994). One of the greatest problems facing those living in the area is the availability of water (Odendal 1991). People living in proximity to the reserve can

fetch water from the gates, depending on the season and monthly rainfall, but generally there is approximately 10 000 litres per month made available by MGR to the community (Howitt *pers. comm.* 1998).

In terms of resource collection, firewood collection impacts most positively on the community thus improving the relationship between MGR and the community. In a study conducted by Van Wyk (1994) it was concluded that there was a definite preference for certain fuelwood species and that only certain areas of the reserve is accessible for fuelwood collection. The baseline study determined the annual wood biomass production on 392,25 tonnes. With the average family using 4 tonnes of fuelwood per annum, the harvestable production in the MGR can provide for the needs of 98 households per annum. According to Van Wyk (1994) the average family in urban areas spend R 60.00 to R80.00 on paraffin or coal for cooking and heating per month. Therefore the fuelwood is worth R70 000 to R90 000 annually to these people. The manner in which the fuelwood collection is controlled by MGR staff is that people from the villages are allowed to collect one head load every Friday. The people living in Mpakeni are most reliant on this collection because they do not have electricity and are the poorest and most remote of the villages. They were also the most affected by the formation of the protected area in terms of lost of land. These people rely heavily on the collection of fuelwood, but are unhappy with the system of collection allowed (Mahlombe *pers. comm.* 1998)¹⁰. They have to walk long distances to collect the wood and only allowing one head load does not prove to be a worthwhile effort. They have suggested they would like some assistance from the reserve staff on transporting the wood. This would help to improve the relations between the people and MGR. Since 1991 local people have been involved on a voluntary basis to clear certain areas of bush. The objective of this practice is to create clearings that will favour grazers species and will enhance game viewing objectives (Van Wyk 1994). This arrangement is to the mutual benefit of both MGR staff and the community as the people get firewood for their labour and MGR obtains a management objective at no cost (Figure 5). With the large population densities living around the reserve the firewood quotas cannot contribute significantly towards solving the fuel problem. However, from the MPB's perspective, what the access to

the reserve with some benefits to the people does, is to promote good neighbour relations. Since the 1994 elections, a great deal of this area has been electrified, and with plans to extend this process the demand for fuelwood will be lessened. This raises another problem as most people in this community would probably not be able to pay for this service, thus resulting in continued use of fuelwood as it is perceived as being “free”.



Figure 5: Women collecting fire wood from within MGR.

Venison is another resource the community receive from MGR. An annual quota of venison is allocated to the community this includes 4 giraffe, one given to each village or the equivalent thereof (Howitt *pers. comm.* 1998). The Tribal Authority receives 20 impala per year (Howitt *pers. comm.* 1998). This meat is used at the discretion of the Tribal Authority, but must have relevance to the community. This could be seen as an exercise in good relations on behalf on the MGR staff, because this quota cannot contribute meaningfully to the needs of the community. Venison that is obtained

¹⁰ Mrs. Thelma Mahlombe Community Liaison Officer for MGR, this opinion has been related to her through the community.

through culling operations and hunting is sold to the community at reduced prices (Howitt *pers. comm.* 1998)¹¹.

Local traditional healers are allowed to harvest medicinal plants on a limited basis from within MGR (Van Wyk 1994). Although the traditional healers are encouraged to grow the species that they make extensive use of outside of the reserve, the MPB's policy with regards to indigenous nurseries for commercial purposes, is that it is not economically feasible for every community to have their own nursery (Bourne *pers. comm.* 1998)¹². Therefore a few central nurseries are being planned by the MPB throughout the province and these will supply the rest of the province, one such site is Songimvelo Game Reserve (Bourne *pers. comm.* 1998).

MGR also allows access for recreational use in the form of a picnic area on the edge of the reserve. This site is not exclusively for use by residents of the local villages, but is utilised by them on a regular basis (Mahlombe, Ngonyama *pers. comm.* 1998). The facilities offered at the picnic site are good with a tuck shop, water, amenities and braai facilities. The nature of the terrain dictates that access into the reserve requires a 4X4 vehicle thus limiting access for recreational use. According to the agreement between MPB and CCA, sole traversing rights has been granted to the tourism operators. Bongani Lodge caters for the more upmarket tourist and prices for accommodation are effectively out of reach of the majority of the neighbouring community. Therefore recreational use for the community is of a limited nature.

The harvesting of thatch grass by the community is also allowed by MGR staff on a controlled basis. In 1993 this resource amounted to a value of R6 364 for the community (Van Wyk 1994). Table 1 lists the direct benefits, in monetary terms, the community received from MGR between 1988 -1993.

¹¹ Mr. Mark Howitt MGR Manager - MPB

Table 1: Direct Benefits received by the Mpakeni Community 1989 - 1993 (Van Wyk 1994)

Year	Thatchgrass (R)	Meat (R)	Firewood (R)	Hunting (R)	Lease of land (R)	Salaries (R)
1988	0	1 737	0	-	-	112 896
1989	13 500	2736	2 879	-	-	204 257
1990	5 588	11 133	3 492	-	-	495 608
1991	14 317	8 178	5 871	-	-	1 014 978
1992	0	12 564	7 259	-	-	1 198 722
1993	6 364	10 818	9 617	39 000	60 000	1 051 305
Total	39 770	47 166	29 120	39 000	60 000	4 077 768

It becomes clear that MGR does contribute significantly to the surrounding community and in situations where poverty is rife these are important benefits. However, sometimes direct material incentives distort perceptions and can create dependencies (Pimbert and Pretty 1995). Dependency is a very complex issue and is one that is ingrained in rural development history (A'Bear *pers. comm.* 1999). These direct benefits can also in some cases, lead to the false impression that the community are supportive of externally - driven initiatives. These kinds of benefits seem to focus on the consumptive use of resources, either in the form of natural resources or monetary resources. These benefits are based upon a finite and often highly limited resource base and with high population densities per capita benefits to neighbours are increasingly limited (Pimbert and Pretty 1995). Considering the number of people surrounding the area and their needs for natural resources and employment, it would be impossible for MGR to provide for everyone, and these benefits should therefore be seen as only part of a process that leads to creating capacity to control their own lives. In light of this, other benefits of a more intangible nature need to also accrue to communities which result in more meaningful and sustainable involvement in protected areas. Protected area - community interaction resulting in community development would seem to offer greater possibility of benefiting neighbours as a whole than would programmes focusing on consumptive use (Davion 1996).

¹² Mr. H. Bourne MPB

4.5.2 Intangible Benefits

Intangible benefits are much more difficult to define and quantify than direct benefits, but are important to ensure that communities do not remain passive beneficiaries of direct benefits, but actually come to understand the issues underlying the management and protection of protected areas (Venter 1998). It has been stressed (Venter 1998; Lewis 1996; Wainwright and Wehrmeyer 1998) that communities need to be included in management and decision making processes, allowing an element of control over the factors influencing their lives. Through the forum and the management committee, effective structures are in place to enable the Mpakeni community to participate in management structures, what needs to be assessed is the actual influence these structures allow the community to have on management plans for MGR.

Communities also need to be offered support via training and capacity building in conservation (Davies 1997). This is a long term goal but efforts should be made to attain this as it is imperative for the long term sustainability of a project. MPB has set up a bursary fund to train locals in nature conservation indicating that the long term vision is for the community to actively be involved in management (Van Wyk *pers. comm.* 1998). The deputy warden of MGR is a local resident, and has been trained in formal conservation. This raises the possibility of him taking control of management of MGR in the future.

4.6 Empowerment

Benefits should also encourage sustainable socio-economic development outside of the protected area. These kinds of benefits include the support of entrepreneurial developments, environmental awareness and education which result in communities gaining capacity to control the development process themselves. MPB support community development, and employ full-time staff dedicated to community development work and building good relations between MPB and the community. They make a considerable contribution to the creation of satellite development programmes around the core conservation area. These programmes promote capacity building, training, environmental education / awareness and wealth creation for some of the poorer sectors of the settlements (Odendal 1991).

MPB is involved in 28 projects in the area (Mahlambe *pers. comm.* 1998)¹³. Some of the projects that MPB staff are involved in include sewing groups, craft making, baking groups, brick making, permaculture programmes and agricultural extension work. The permaculture and agriculture extension programmes make use of organic materials and encourage natural pesticides, to encourage a more sustainable living strategy. These facilitators encourage local residents in the villages to grow plants and to use them in the community, thus alleviating pressure on the natural resources. These projects provide fresh produce for sale on the open market and for family consumption. A number of women's groups exist and MPB tries to work closely with them supplying them with training and material help where possible, or forging links with NGOs, such as Ecolink in White River. One such group that Ecolink has helped is a women's group in Luphisi. These women have created a permaculture garden, which is facilitated by MPB. These women have undergone training in growing vegetables in dry conditions with optimum efficiency. They initially had an agreement with Bongani Lodge to sell their vegetables but because of the lack of water, they could not supply the lodge on a reliable basis. However, they do sell the produce to the residents of Luphisi. They have also diversified and have added sewing and baking to their products. These women then train others that are interested in permaculture. These women are still reliant on the support of MPB, as are many other development projects in the area. However, empowerment is a long term goal and these projects are assisting the community gain the capacity which will lead to empowerment in the future.

4.7 Environmental Education and Awareness

Environmental education and awareness is essential for any successful protected area - community relationship (Davion 1996). Environmental education and awareness should be inextricably linked to empowerment so that communities can learn ways of improving and controlling their lives (Davion 1996). Most residents in the Mpakeni Tribal Area value protected areas in terms of utilisation. Odendal's study (1991) indicated that respondents in his study exhibited a much higher level of knowledge about their immediate environment than respondents from other regions in southern Africa. A possible explanation of this finding could be that the people in this area

¹³ Mrs. Thelma Mahlamba Community Liaison Officer, MPB

have traditionally lived off the land and have, until fairly recently, had no other way of functioning. The commitment that MPB have shown toward environmental education and awareness is indicated in the building of the interpretation centre outside the village of Daantjie on the border of MGR. The centre is very well equipped with audio visual facilities and a qualified, experienced interpretation officer. This centre is largely utilised by school groups who receive lectures on conservation and environmental issues, and are then taken into the reserve to make the learning experience more real. Older groups have also been targeted, but the main focus is on school children. Initiatives have also been made to start eco-clubs in the surrounding schools to further promote environmental awareness. The financial sustainability of this project needs to be evaluated and constraints such as lack of funds, vehicle shortage and other logistical problems are threatening the existence of the project.

4.8 Tourism

One of the short comings of the relationship between MGR and the neighbouring community is the failure to actively forge a link between the tourism sector and the community (Van Wyk *pers. comm.* 1998). The focus of the interaction has been between the conservation agency and the community, which is essential, but neglecting a possible greater source of community development in the form of the tourism sector. In South Africa today the tourism sector is being heralded as being able to promote economic development in rural areas (Koch 1997). It is being seen as the panacea that will solve all the rural problems, this statement should be taken in context and an over exaggeration of the possibilities offered by tourism should not be encouraged. However, tourism does have the potential to contribute to the local economy. Depending on the nature of the tourism venture, it has the ability to promote activities that can be undertaken by relatively rural communities (Ashley 1995). Developments linked to tourism require careful planning and the community needs to be actively involved at all levels of operations if the community is to benefit. Too often private operators exploit these communities and the benefits are minimal. The industry needs to develop a sense of social responsibility and community development if operations are going to be sustainable in the long term.

In terms of location MGR is situated in the country's prime nature tourism region. Warm climate, the "big five" and other scenic attractions nearby make the position ideal from a tourism perspective. The Lowveld region has the second greatest share of the domestic tourism market in South Africa, 23% and 16% of the traffic from overseas (Koch 1997). The proximity to Gauteng and the KNP make this an ideal area for a tourism venture. The Maputo Development Corridor has also boosted the tourism trade in the region. Since the opening up of Mozambique to the general public, an increase of tourism traffic flows through the Lowveld (Maputo Development Corridor Summary Report 1998). This in addition to plans for an international airport, and the upgrading of the road between Johannesburg and Maputo which passes within a few kilometres from the entrance to MGR, serve to promote a healthy flow of tourists through the area.

Bongani Lodge has become a popular destination with tourists, particularly from overseas (Taylor *pers. comm.* 1996)¹⁴. It offers an upmarket nature tourism package that combines rugged mountain scenery, the "big five" and other large mammals and luxury lodge accommodation. In terms of what the lodge offers the community is minimal. The community receive 25% of the 4% of turnover that the lodge gives to MPB (Lease Agreement 1992). CCA has initiated its Rural Investment Fund, which up until now has offered nothing for the Mpakeni community (Taylor *pers. comm.* 1998). This fund, while it has offered benefits to other communities surrounding their other protected areas, is separate from the actual tourist or conservation activities of CCA. It works on the principal that visitors donate funds into a trust account for communities (Carlisle *pers. comm.* 1998)¹⁵. CCA facilitates fund raising, but does not offer profit sharing or active participation on behalf of the community. While this type of benefit has facilitated the building of clinics, schools etc. in other areas, and could offer useful benefits, is largely based on passive involvement on behalf of the community.

Craft sales are supported on a limited scale (Taylor *pers. comm.* 1998). A representative of a women's group in Luphisi is picked up every day and taken to the lodge to sell the products of this particular group. Although this does assist, the

¹⁴ Mr. Mark Taylor, former Manager of Bongani Lodge, Conservation Corporation Africa

majority of curios sold in the curio shop are from other area such as Zimbabwe. The problem with craft sales relates to the quality of the product and the access to markets. The full potential has not yet been reached. The proposed development of the Matsulu Cultural Centre on the boundary of the reserve on the Matsulu side, will offer locals an opportunity to sell their products, however, this needs to be controlled to ensure quality and competitiveness.

Cultural Tourism is one area that has been largely neglected in both the study areas. The tourism product is largely seen as wildlife, and the expansion into the realms of cultural tourism could provide a means for the local communities to become actively involved in the tourism product. This idea, although it does have tremendous potential, also has a number of drawbacks. The idea of commercialising culture is a sensitive issue raising many debates revolving around cultural preservation versus cultural exploitation (Boo 1990; Cater 1996; Scheyvens 1997). However if it is done in a sensitive way, controlled by the community, it has the possibility of providing a means for rural communities to promote socio-economic development, while perhaps even preserving a particular culture (Scheyvens 1997).

Cultural tourism has not been fully explored in the Mpakeni Tribal Area. Although Bongani Lodge does take its visitors into Luphisi to experience local culture, it is not a regular occurrence and could be better developed. Here locals perform traditional Swazi dancing and give them an opportunity to sell their products. The creation of the Matsulu Cultural Centre will expand on this theme, but for the communities surrounding the MGR cultural tourism could offer a means of participating and benefiting meaningfully from the tourist trade.

The Mpakeni community are not involved in the management of the lodge in anyway. According to Pimbert and Pretty's (1995) typology of participation, 'Passive Participation' is when people participate by being told what is going to happen or what has already happened. The community's participation in Bongani Lodge can therefore be classified as being passive. The lodge does offer the community employment, but very little else in terms of substantial benefits. It would seem that the

¹⁵ Mr. Les Carlisle, Regional Development Manager, Phinda, Conservation Corporation Africa

benefits the community receive from the lodge are merely token efforts, and the possibility for a more equitable arrangement could be developed. The operators have expressed a willingness to contribute, and community interaction is very much apart of CCA's policy (Taylor *pers. comm.* 1998). However, the arrangement with the tourism operators was made during a politically and financially difficult time for MPB. Thus the agreement was not the most suitable for MPB and the community. (Van Wyk *pers. comm.* 1998). Essentially the agreement is between MPB and the tourist operator. MPB act on behalf of the community. One option is for the tourism operator to make an agreement directly with the community, without MPB being involved. In all the other CCA lodges they manage the conservation efforts themselves. If they took over all operations from MPB and dealt directly with the community, the community might benefit more from tourism and conservation. This strategy would need to be studied in greater detail, and is just one alternative. The issue of privatisation has been much debated in all sectors.

The community are currently only passively involved in tourism activities, and the potential for much greater involvement and to expand and diversify the tourism product needs to be explored in greater detail.

CHAPTER 5

PILANESBERG NATIONAL PARK

5.1 Introduction

The Pilanesberg National Park is situated in one of the largest volcanic igneous complexes in the world. It is located in the Mankwe district of the North West Province, formally Bophuthatswana. It is situated approximately 35 kilometres north of Rustenberg (Figure 6). The extinct volcano in which the Pilanesberg National Park is located has a 24 kilometre diameter making it an ecologically and aesthetically interesting site for a game reserve. It has been acclaimed by international conservation organisations as one of the best planned game reserves in the world (Anon 1986). This view has, however, not taken into account the large number of people who were effected by the establishment of the reserve.

5.2 Socio-economic Climate

The importance of considering the socio-economic conditions of those living around protected areas for the survival of conserving biodiversity has been dealt with extensively (Hughes and Steenkamp 1997; Venter 1998; Lewis 1996). Thus considering those living around Pilanesberg National Park is no exception. The socio-economic situation of those living closest to a protected area can possibly offer the greatest threat to the protected area if these people are not included in the overall management objectives of protected areas.

To understand the full extent of the dense population pressures and dynamics of communities surrounding the Pilanesberg National Park, it needs to be seen in the context of the broader socio-economic and political history of South Africa. This area was part of the former independent homeland of Bophuthatswana and thus inextricably linked to apartheid policies. Today the region has been incorporated into South Africa under the administration of the North West Province.

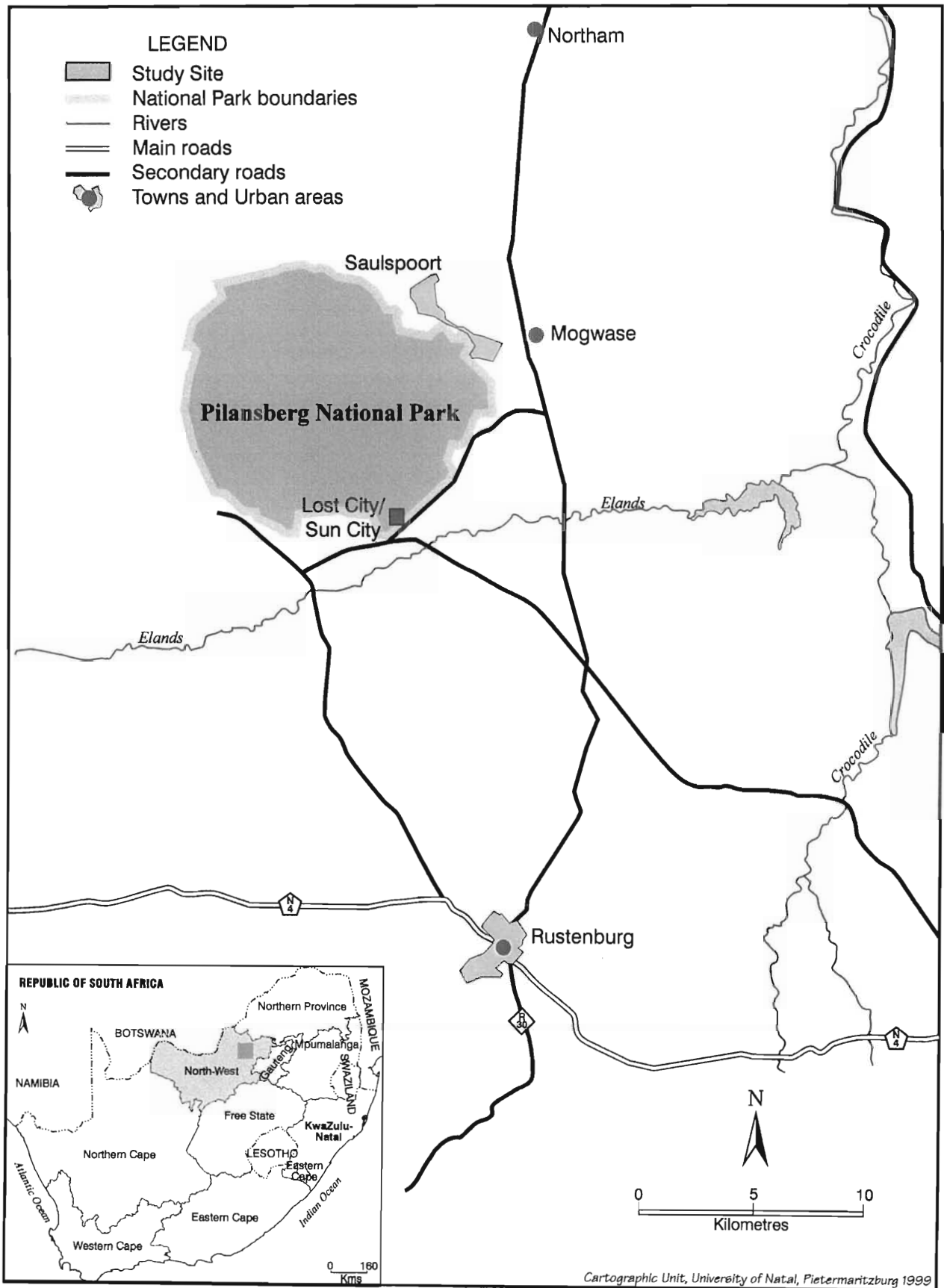


Figure 6 : Pilansberg National Park

5.2.1 Settlements Surrounding Pilanesberg National Park

The two communities that surround the Pilanesberg National Park are the Bakubung and Bakgatla community (Brett 1989). Both these communities fall under the Mankwe magisterial district. This case study will consider the Bakgatla community, as they have a close relationship with the Pilanesberg National Park and have forged links with conservation. The history of human settlement in the area is very rich and diverse and can be traced back to 300 AC (Brett 1989). It has also been closely linked to the ecological conditions of the region. The history of the Bakgatla community is also connected to their sister tribe in Botswana. (For a more detailed historical explanation see appendix 3 page 96)

5.1.1.1 Bakgatla Tribal Area

Today the Bakgatla community based at Moruleng consists of 28 villages, and has a population estimated at 85 000 (Bakgatla -Ba-Kgafela Tribal Administration 1998). The villages included in the area are listed in the following table:

Table 2: List of Villages comprising the Bakgatla Tribal Area

1. Saulspoort	2. Modderkuil
3. Mabele -A - Podi	4. Maologane
5. Legkraal	6. Mothabe
7. Lesetlheng	8. Mopyane
9. Lerome	10. Wegeval
11. Witfontein	12. Dwarsberg
13. Spitskop	14. Mononono
15. Holfontein	16. Mapaputle
17. Magong	18. Sandfontein
19. Kraalhoek	20. Segakwaneng
21. Ngweding	22. Ramoshibitswana
23. Ramoga	24. Lekutung
25. Kwa - Huma	26. Phorome
27. Mabodisa	28. Phuting

The population is largely comprised of SeTswana people, while there are other language groups in the area these are in the minority. The settlements are largely peri-urban with large towns like Mogwase, Saulspoort and Ledig actually bordering on the park. The infrastructure in the villages is relatively good with approximately 70% of the households having electricity and 60% with water (Motshegoe *pers. comm.* 1998)¹⁶. Figures from the 1996 census were only recorded for the Mankwe magisterial district not under the Bakgatla Tribal Area, however it appears the socio-economic situation of the Bakgatla community is reflective of the Mankwe district. According to the 1996 census figures the total population of the Mankwe district was recorded as being 203 217 (HSRC n.d.). The formal educational levels of the community is slightly better than that of the people living in the Mpakeni area, with 19% of the population having no formal education and approximately 7% of the population have Standard 10 as the highest educational level (HSRC n.d.). The functional literacy has been recorded as 67.14% (HSRC n.d.).

The access into the Mankwe area plays an important role in the development of this particular region thus impacting on the socio-economic status of the Bakgatla community. The Mankwe district is served by roads, rail and air traffic. The development of major tourist ventures such as Sun City and the Pilanesberg National Park, and the many mines in the region has resulted in easy access into the area. Accessibility into the villages that comprise the Bakgatla community is relatively good, with good tar roads leading to the major centres. The further away from the reserve the conditions of roads becomes progressively worse thus leaving those people living in the more remote areas with less adequate accessibility. However, the mobility of the people living in these areas is generally good, and the connection with major centres such as Johannesburg, Pretoria and Rustenberg has positive implications for socio-economic development of the region.

The economic profile of the region is not totally reliant on conservation and tourism (Watson 1992). A number of other industries operate in the area, diversifying the economy, and creating employment for many people. However, employment like in most regions in South Africa, is a major concern for those living in the area

¹⁶ Mr. Koos Motshegoe former CDO member and Bakgatla community facilitator

(Motshegoe *pers. comm.* 1998). The unemployment rate which has been calculated used unemployment as a percentage of labour supply, is recorded as being 46.64% (HSRC n.d.). The dependency ratio which is the number of unemployed to the number employed, has been worked out to be 2:21 (HSRC n.d.). The average household income is estimated as R12 704 (HSRC n.d.).

Agriculture, mining, manufacturing industry and tourism all play a role in the land use of the district. (See map; The land use in the Mankwe District, Appendix 4, page 100). Many people living in this area work in the bigger industrial centres of Johannesburg, Pretoria and Rustenberg. Agricultural land use is strongly influenced by the climate and soils. The mean annual rainfall of the district ranges from 550 mm to 650 mm on the plain to over 700 mm on the Pilanesberg hills (Brett 1989). The rainfall of the district is therefore adequate for arable cropping except in drought years. The red and black structured soils of the plains are suitable for arable cropping by reason of their high inherent fertility and that is where the arable lands are concentrated. Arable cultivation is also practised on the alluvium and on small patches of the aeolian sand. There is very little cultivation on the dissected plain or in the hills. The principle crops are maize, grain, sorghum, sunflower and wheat (Watson 1992).

Cattle grazing occurs over a wide area of about 210 500 ha of the Mankwe district. Acocks (1988) shows that on the plains there are three roughly horizontal-vegetation belts starting with other Turf Thornveld in the north and passing through mixed Bushveld to Sourish Mixed Bushveld in the south (Watson 1992). On the Maakane and Pilanesberg hills there is Sour Bushveld and Sourish Mixed Bushveld. It would therefore appear as though the more nutritious, sweet, grazing lies on the plain rather than in the hills and in the north of the plain rather than the south (Watson 1992). This is one reason why it was decided that a game reserve would be the best land use option for the Pilanesberg (Brett 1989). This view did not mean that the area was not use for cattle grazing prior to the formation of the reserve, it was, and was one of the major points of contention in the establishment of the Pilanesberg National Park.

Mining is an important industry in the Mankwe district because of the platinum and chromite ore bodies in the Bushveld igneous complex (Watson 1992). Platinum and associated elements, namely iridium, osmium, palladium, rhodium and ruthenium are

mined in the north of the district and chromite is mined further south. There is also a lime quarry and a brickfield in the district (Watson 1992). The mines are a major source of employment for people in the area.

5.2.2 Conclusion

It is evident that relatively rural populations surround Pilanesberg National Park, with economic development needs a high priority. These should be incorporated in the overall management objectives of the Pilanesberg National Park if the goal of conserving biodiversity is to be maintained. The Bakgatla community need to be included and supportive of sustainable development initiatives and these initiatives should promote socio-economic development in the region.

5.3 Political Structure and Community Institutions

As with the case of the Mpakeni Tribal Area, the official community institution is the Bakgatla Tribal Authority. The Tribal Authority still holds a great deal of control over the community and effectively is the local government structure for the Bakgatla community. As in many rural areas, traditional powers versus new local government structures and the interaction between the two is a major issue in the Bakgatla Tribal Area (Matlala 1995). The Mankwe district now has two competing centres of power - the relatively modern industrial town of Mogwase, and the Bakgatla Tribal Authority which controls the 28 villages in the area. Mogwase is a fairly new establishment, and is the centre of local government for the Mankwe district. The small town is growing rapidly as young families move in, attracted by the promise of a better life with amenities like water and electricity laid on (Matlala 1995). The chairperson of the Bakgatla Tribal Authority, reports that the systems of transitional local councils is designed for urban townships and cannot meet the unique requirements of the rural situation (Pilanes *pers. comm.* 1998). This point might explain why the current changes in local government seem not to have affected the Bakgatla community to any significant extent (Matlala 1995). Therefore the Tribal Authority has substantial administrative responsibility in terms of services and development in the area.

The majority of interaction between the Pilanesberg National Park and the Bakgatla community takes place through the Tribal Authority. The Bakgatla community have a number of other institutional structures besides that of the Tribal Authority. In 1993

members from the community decided to form the Bakgatla Community Development Organisation (CDO). This non-governmental organisation was established to liaise with Pilanesberg National Park, and deal with benefits received. It was established as a section 21 company, and was not politically aligned (Sentle *pers. comm.* 1998)¹⁷. Its mission was to meet the socio-economic needs of the Bakgatla people sustainably. The CDO originally consisted of 12 members from various disciplines who could represent the community. Staff from the Pilanesberg National Park were also included in the membership of the CDO. The goal of the CDO was not to work against the Tribal Authority, but to assist it, and to prioritise the needs of the community and to guide spending of the community funds. It also wanted to re-negotiate an agreement with Pilanesberg National Park so that the community had appropriate legal standing and benefited accordingly. The CDO, acting as an NGO, had the ability and means to access donor funding and thus could greatly assist rural development in the area. The CDO therefore allowed the interaction between the community and the park to become more accountable and representative.

However, the CDO is no longer in existence. Politics has been cited as the reason for the collapse of the CDO (Sigale; Sentle; Magome *pers. comm.* 1998). A dispute arose over who had the mandate to facilitate development in the area (Sigale; Tshite *pers. comm.* 1998)¹⁸. The conflict has settled, and although the CDO has formally disbanded many of its members still continue to work with the community and plans are being made to resurrect the CDO. This time members will be democratically elected (Sigale; Motshegoe *pers. comm.* 1998). This has highlighted the need for community structures to be representative of the general public and to have the support of the community, for them to work effectively within the community.

5.4 Relations with Pilanesberg National Park

The Pilanesberg National Park management has had to adapt and change over the years, to both political changes and socio-economic changes. It was managed by the former Bophuthatswana National Parks Boards, which has now been amalgamated into the North West Parks and Tourism Board (NWPTB). The Board has also realised

¹⁷ Ms. Fancy Sentle Former member of CDO and local teacher

that it is no longer economically or socially acceptable to exclude those living close to the protected area (Venter 1998, Wainwright and Wehrmeyer 1997). The manner in which the Bakgatla community is involve in conservation within the Pilanesberg National Park and the relationship that has developed between the Bakgatla and the reserve should be seen as *ad hoc* solutions rather than a planned partnership agreement. This can be attributed to the history of the formation of the Pilanesberg National Park, which has greatly effected the issue of ownership of the Pilanesberg National Park.

5.4.1 Ownership

Ownership is a complex issue, and in terms of the Pilanesberg National Park should be seen as an integral part of the history of the formation of the protected area. The Pilanesberg National Park was established in 1979, after the South African Department of Bantu Affairs had requested Farrel and van Riet Landscape Architects and Ecological Planners to draw up initial plans for the reserve in 1969 (Keenan 1984). After this proposal was accepted as a viable and favourable option, land amounting to 60 000 ha had to be attained to make this idea become a reality. Like the creation of protected areas elsewhere in the world, this land was occupied by people who had lived on the land for hundreds of years (Carruthers 1997). The area belonged to people who were members of the Bakgatla and Bakubung community, private land owners and state owned land (Keenan 1984). The Bakgatla people owned approximately 8 500 ha of the specified land. This land comprised freehold tenure consisting of the farms Schaapkraal and Welgeval, and portions of other farms belonging to this community (Keenan 1984).

The decision to create the Pilanesberg National Park was taken externally from the community and they were only consulted in as much as their land was required for the project (Keenan 1984). The process that ensued left the community angry and excluded from conservation and put a strain on relations between the protected area and the surrounding community (Keenan 1984). The acquisition of land from the Bakgatla people, and the processes followed in setting up the protected area left many issues unresolved. The process involved political manipulation of the Bakgatla

¹⁸ Mr. Irish Tshite, RDP

people and empty promises (Keenan 1984). A number of meetings took place between the Tribal Authority and the then government of Bophuthatswana, in which the community was assured that the surface and the underneath of the land would remain the property of the tribe. The question of compensation was another hostile issue. At one such meeting it was concluded that:

- a) The tribe would lend its land in the Pilanesberg National Park to the government, and that it would retain both surface and subterranean property rights.
- b) The tribe would accept the use of ± 9000 ha of additional trust land from the government as compensation for the losses of the amount of land.
- c) The inhabitants of tribal land in the park area would receive compensation and the tribe would receive rent from the revenue.
- d) The then president Mr. Mangope would return with a written agreement.

According to the Tribal Authority this agreement was never put into writing and the President never returned to Saulspoort. They also state that a written agreement was never entered into by the Tribal Authority (Keenan 1984). Very few written records were kept of the whole process which has served to further mystify the situation and add to further misunderstandings and tensions.

The removal of people and cattle had far reaching consequences for the people who occupied the land originally and to those areas to which they were moved (Keenan 1984). Additional grazing had to be found for the cattle that had previously been grazed in the Pilanesberg National Park, which cause additional pressure on already over utilised land outside the reserve. According to Keenan (1984) approximately 50 000 people, or about 7 000 households, were deprived materially by the creation of the Pilanesberg National Park. The manner in which all this took place has resulted in distrust of conservation and resentment on the part of the community (Keenan 1984). One women's account sums up the attitude of many who had been removed:

The way they have treated us shows the world is coming to an end. Wild animals are living better and the people are dying. Why must animals be given first preference with people being left to suffer.¹⁹

The removals have had far reaching consequences for the community. Discussion with members of the community who had been physically removed through the formation of the Pilanesberg National Park, revealed that with now limited space their lifestyles have been altered and their whole mode of existence has changed.

The removal of people from within the Pilanesberg National Park has greatly impacted on the ownership of the land. It effectively removed formal ownership of the reserve and excluded the neighbouring communities from any meaningful partnerships with the conservation agencies controlling the protected area. The more intangible issue of 'sense of ownership' has also been effected by the forced removals of the people from within the Pilanesberg National Park. The total exclusion and manner in which they were removed left them feeling little attachment and understanding of the conservation practices within the reserve (Keenan 1984). However, the Bakgatla people have a historical, and spiritual attachment to the land. Many grave sites are in the reserve and many residents remember living on the land in question, they therefore feel they have ownership of the land. This should be backed up with benefits that accrue to the community.

In 1993 the Bakgatla people instituted a land claim to the approximately 8 000 ha which they had previously occupied (Magome *pers. comm.* 1998)²⁰. This claim has led to the re-negotiation of the conditions between the park and the community. However, most agreements up to date, have been tacit agreements and thus it is difficult to ascertain the exact nature of the agreements (Magome *pers. comm.* 1998).

The lack of a formalised agreement and clear policy guidelines on behalf of NWPTB with regards to interaction between the Bakgatla community and Pilanesberg National Park has resulted in the Bakgatla community not actively being included in the management structures of the Pilanesberg National Park. The reserve management expressed the opinion that the relationship between Pilanesberg National Park and the community, should be to receive benefits in terms of profit sharing and facilitation where it was appropriate and possible, but that the involvement in conservation

¹⁹ This account comes from interviews with Bakgatla community members who wish to remain anonymous.

²⁰ Mr. Hector Magome, former Director of Bophuthastwana Parks Board, now National Parks Board

practices should be limited and left to the reserve staff (Maoka *pers. comm.* 1998). What further complicates the matter is that the Bakgatla community only have legal claim to approximately 8 500 ha of the 60 000 ha reserve. The Chief does sit on the Board of directors, however this should be seen as more an exercise in good relations as opposed to real meaningful participation by the community.

5.5 Benefits

The Benefits the Bakgatla community receive from Pilanesberg National Park will be considered under the following divisions:

- Tangible benefits;
- Intangible Benefits and
- Empowerment

5.5.1 Tangible Benefits

The direct benefits the community receive from Pilanesberg National Park vary in meaningfulness and appropriateness. As mentioned previously the lack of a formal agreement has resulted in no clearly defined benefits being specified to accrue to the community. However, the conservation authorities do see the necessity for the neighbouring communities to receive some benefits from the park as they realise the importance of having a good relationship with these communities. In terms of tangible benefits the community receive money, employment and limited access. The community receive 10% of the gate takings, this was decided upon by the reserve in consultation with the Bakgatla Tribal Authority (Maoka *pers. comm.* 1998). This amount varies from year to year, the reserve budgeted for R179 000 in 1998 (Maoka *pers. comm.* 1998)²¹. This percentage is calculated by Pilanesberg National Park management and the community have no say in how this is calculated. The community would like the process to be more transparent (Sigale; Sentle *pers. comm.* 1998). There are conflicting ideas about this amount between the reserve and the community (Sigale *pers. comm.* 1998). The biggest problem lies with the lack of a formalised agreement between Pilanesberg National Park and the Bakgatla community, and before this is established it would be very difficult to clearly define the benefits the community receives and the legitimacy of these amounts.

²¹ Mr. Johnson Maoka, Head Warden of Pilanesberg National Park.

The Pilanesberg National Park employs approximately 250 people, many of these people are from the surrounding area, but they do not have a specific policy regarding employment of locals first (Maoka *pers. comm.* 1998). The possibility for employment opportunities is great considering the nature of the tourism operations within the reserve. Employment also seems to be of an unskilled nature and does not offer much in terms of empowering the local community to control their own destiny.

With regards to community access to the reserve, this is controlled by reserve staff on a limited basis. Community access is controlled using a permit system which is controlled by the reserve staff and the Tribal Authority. The manner in which the access was decided upon and the process through which it is controlled is decided on completely at the discretion of the reserve staff (Maoka *pers. comm.* 1998).

Medicinal plant harvesting is allowed on a very limited basis. However, plans are being made by the community themselves to set up a '*muti* garden' in the community-owned Lebatlane Tribal Resource Reserve for harvesting of medicinal plants. The collection of clay is also permitted from within the reserve by the Pilanesberg National Park for community members.

Fuelwood collection by the community from within the reserve has been limited for the use of funerals (Maoka *pers. comm.* 1998). Pilanesberg National Park staff implemented this limitation as they concluded that the demand for fuelwood was too great to be met by the resources within the reserve, and the system of allowing local people to harvest from the park was being exploited by the community who were harvesting for commercial purposes (Maoka *pers. comm.* 1998). It has thus been limited to funerals, and the community is required to produce a letter of proof to verify the wood claim. It would seem that this system, instead of improving relations between the community and the protected area has rather resulted in another point of contention.

The community is allowed unlimited access to visit graves sites from within the reserve. Access for recreational use is another important issue. Tourism facilities were also provided for the community within the reserve, at the Bakgatla complex. Here picnic facilities were made available for the surrounding community. However,

this arrangement was not successful (Maoka; Magome *pers. comm.* 1998). Reserve management state that there was a drop in numbers of paying guest in the over night facilities at Bakgatla Camp due to the noise created by the day visitors (Maoka *pers. comm.* 1998). This prompted the park's officials to suggest an alternative site for the picnic facilities for the community outside of the reserve (Magome *pers. comm.* 1998). This site was selected in Saulspoort. The reserve gave the community R96 000 to set up the new recreational facilities, which has been named Raserapane (Motshegoe *pers. comm.* 1998)²².

5.5.2 Intangible Benefits

Intangible benefits are very important for any successful relationship between rural communities and protected areas. However, they are much more difficult to assess and clearly define (Makombe 1993). It is important that communities do not remain passive beneficiaries of benefits but that they have an element of control over these benefits and that they actually come to understand the concepts and objectives of conservation and activities within the protected areas (Venter 1998). There are no clear structures and policies allowing for the Bakgatla community to actively participate in the management objectives of the Pilanesberg National Park. The Chief does sit on the Board, however this should be seen more as contributing toward a 'sense of ownership' than a benefit. For communities to really influence proceedings they need to have management committees or consultative forums where communities are equitably represented and have the power to influence the decision making process. It is not enough for simply one member of the community to sit on the board with limited powers to influence proceedings. However, a complex situation has evolved around the Pilanesberg National Park whereby the reserve has actively supported the creation of a solely community owned and operated nature reserve enabling much interaction with conservation and communities to take place here. Pilanesberg National Park has trained and supported community members in conservation and management skills. Through facilitation by the CDO, the community have also been able to promote capacity building and sustainable socio-economic development.

²² Mr. Koos Motshegoe, Former CDO member and Community Facilitator

5.6 Empowerment

It is important that we consider benefits in terms of how they encourage sustainable socio-economic development outside of the protected area. Communities need to gain capacity to control their own lives and improve on their own socio-economic situation (Davion 1996). The community through the CDO has undertaken much community development themselves. The CDO was responsible for initiating much of the interaction between the community and the Pilanesberg National Park (Magome *pers. comm.* 1998). The CDO was also involved in 43 projects scattered through out the area, and even though the CDO has officially been disbanded still supports these projects (Motshegoe *pers. comm.* 1998). These projects range from women's baking groups, sewing groups, vegetable gardens, piggeries, and brick-making among others (Figure 7). The aim of these projects is to facilitate skills training and capacity building thereby ensuring that all projects become sustainable and self-sufficient (Motshegoe *pers. comm.* 1998). The money received from the reserve has often been used as collateral to access funds to support the bigger projects.



Figure 7: Piggery operated by members of the Bakgatla community.

Mr. Koos Motshegoe, a former member of the CDO, is still actively involved in the developments in the area and acts as a facilitator for the various development projects. The biggest problem facing most of these projects is the availability of markets to sell

their produce. The women's sewing group in Moruleng is trying to forge a contract with one of the mines to produce overalls for the workers. These kinds of contracts are essential for the survival of these types of groups. The CDO has also facilitated the building of five clinics in the region. Most of the donor funding comes from the mines and Sun City. Once the buildings have been completed the Department of Health takes over the operations and maintenance.

There are a number of baking projects. One such project is operated by Mrs. Sellwe, who started the project to assist women who were unemployed. The Sellwe family also assist people interested in various other projects. The Department of Welfare donated R17 000, which was to assist with the baking project, the vegetable garden, sewing project, brick-making and a piggery (Motshegoe *pers. comm.* 1998). This group has received no more funding hence all projects have to be self-sufficient. The women participating in the baking can earn approximately R200 a month from these operations (Baking Group *pers. comm.* 1998). These projects emphasise the need for development to be seen as an integrated process involving all relevant government departments and private sector investors.

Often cited as the greatest benefit that the Pilanesberg National Park has provided for the community is the creation of Lebatlane Tribal Resource Reserve, mentioned above. This reserve was established on the farm Vogelstruiskraal and is 54 km from the Pilanesberg National Park. The farm is 3500 ha in extent, and was previously owned by the former chief who sold the land (Moremi *pers. comm.* 1998)²³. The community decided to buy back the land. Every male within the Bakgatla Tribal Authority contributed R40 towards the purchase of the farm, which was bought for ± R750 000 (Sigale *pers. comm.* 1998). The fact that the community personally contributed towards the purchase of the farm ensured the nature of the reserve as a truly community owned project. It was initially bought for grazing, but it was soon realised that the land was too limited to support the extensive grazing needs of the whole community. After a thorough analysis of all the land use options, it was decided to create a game reserve (Sigale *pers. comm.* 1998).

In establishing the reserve the community received help from the Pilanesberg National Park, Sun City and the Development Bank of South Africa (Moremi *pers. comm.* 1998). Sun City sponsored the erection of a game fence around the area. The Pilanesberg National Park has played an important role in the formation of Lebatlane. They donated the game species, and have assisted in the training and management of the reserve up until now. The initial agreement was that two community members would be trained by Pilanesberg National Park, one as potential manager, and the other as a game scout (Maoka *pers. comm.* 1998).

The initial idea was that the area would be run as a tourist facility, attracting hunters and non-consumptive tourism practices. As it stands today, only hunting operations are taking place in the reserve. The hunting is monitored and controlled by the community manager of the reserve. There is a hunting camp in the reserve with water facilities for the hunters. Hunting season is between May and August, and usually 3 to 5 hunters operate per week during this season. The number of species that can be hunted is worked out in conjunction with the ecology department of Pilanesberg National Park. It is estimated that approximately R50 000 is made during a hunting season. This money has been used to maintain the reserve (Moremi *pers. comm.* 1998).

The creation of Lebatlane Tribal Resource Reserve does a great deal in promoting the benefits of conservation to the community. This wholly community owned reserve is an example of an empowering development initiative, the sustainability of the project will still need to be established. However, the creation of Lebatlane Tribal Resources Reserve should not be seen as a justification for excluding participation in the management of Pilanesberg National Park.

5.7 Environmental Education and Awareness

Environmental education and awareness has always been a major focus of the NWPTB and its predecessor Bophuthatswana Parks Board. From 1980 onwards the Pilanesberg National Park's directors placed environmental education at the fore of their relationship with the surrounding communities (Klevansky 1993). They

²³ Mr. Geff Moremi Community member undergoing training as manger of Lebatlane Tribal Resource

dedicated a large section of the annual budget for this cause. One of the flagship environmental centres in the country is the Goldfields Environmental Education Centre in the Pilanesberg National Park. The Park has also established the Legua Conservation Club Network which works in the neighbouring communities. The focus has been to target not only school groups, but also teachers colleges so that they can incorporate environmental education into the syllabus and into everyday life. The concentration is on reaching the child through the teacher at all levels of schooling. More specifically, courses, programmes and content attempt to strike a balance between cognitive, affective and psychomotive domains, i.e. a holistic approach (Shongwe 1993). Since its inception the Pilanesberg National Park has shown a commitment to environmental education in the neighbouring communities and the region at large.

The rationale behind the environmental education programme is the recognition of the following guiding principles listed by Shongwe (1993):

1. Principle of totality - all aspects of the environment are considered, i.e. natural, built, ecological, political, economical, technological, social, legislative, cultural and aesthetic;
2. Principle of continuity - it is a continuous process from pre-school to adult education;
3. Principle of integration - it is an inter-disciplinary approach, emphasising knowledge, skills and value from a holistic and balanced perspective;
4. Principle of participation - active participation in environmental problem -solving is crucial;
5. Principle of relevance - the focus is on current and potential environmental situations, locally, regionally and internationally;
6. Principle of inter-relationship - people are seen as being dynamically involved with their environment.

It can be noted that a dedicated effort has been given to formal environmental education on behalf of the Pilanesberg National Park. This is not however, the only environmental awareness programmes operating within the Bakgatla community. The

establishment of the Bakgatla Environmental Awareness Organisation (BEAO), has allowed the community to try and establish links with formal conservation practices. The BEAO is promoting the incorporation of indigenous knowledge base systems into the way in which the land is managed. This group is working with ecologist and botanists and identifying and classifying trees in the area (Masuku *pers. comm.* 1998)²⁴. They promote sustainable utilisation in order to give value for the protection of species. Conservation is not a new concept, and the protection of species, both plant and animal has been interwoven into SeTswana culture since pre-colonial times. The SeTswana culture incorporates a number of totem animals, cultural taboos and seasonal harvesting methods, which effectively served to protect valuable species.

Today, the BEAO is working together with formally trained conservationists to re-establish traditional protection mechanisms, and use them to promote conservation (Masuku *pers. comm.* 1998). Masuku stresses the importance of cultural indigenous knowledge for giving dignity back to the people. This organisation acts as a facilitator for a number of permaculture gardens in the villages. Each village has a vegetable garden to supply the community. There are plans to start 6 ha plots in each village to grow more extensive crops for commercial production (Masuku *pers. comm.* 1998). The idea would be that each village would grow one type of vegetable to avoid competition. They could then possibly supply their produce to the tourist lodges in the area (Masuku *pers. comm.* 1998). But at the moment the vegetable production is at a subsistence level. The main crops are maize, sorghum and various vegetables.

5.8 Tourism

Tourism plays an important role in the economy of the North West Province. Tourism in the region is based on wildlife and the Sun City / Lost City Complex (Anon 1986). Possibly the best known tourism attraction in the region is the Sun City complex which is closely linked to the Pilanesberg National Park and together they form a substantial tourism node both for the domestic market and internationally (Brett 1989). The reserve caters for a whole price spectrum in the tourism market. The product it offers is thus diverse and fairly flexible. It offers facilities for 'day

²⁴ Mrs. Grace Masuku former member of the CDO and founder of BEAO

trippers', overnight accommodation, in the form of lodges, self-catering chalets, caravan parks and camping grounds. They also provide conference facilities, tented bush camps and hides (Brett 1989). The tourism operations inside the reserve, with the exception of Kwa Maritane Lodge and Bakubung Lodge, are operated by Golden Leopard Resorts, which is the commercial branch of the NWPTB. (See map of Pilanesberg National Park, appendix 5, page 101).

The two lodges, Kwa Maritane and Bakubung, are operated by Stocks Leisure company within the reserve. These lodges are operated as hotels and both offer time-share facilities. A private company Pilanesberg Safari's has a concession to operate driving safaris, both day and night drives and hot air balloon safaris, this operates mainly from Sun City. Hunting is also offered within the reserve, which is operated by Kgama Safari's, but is closely controlled and monitored by the Pilanesberg National Park staff (Maoka *pers. comm.* 1998).

Although tourism has produced indirect benefits for the community, such as improved infrastructure, and has boosted the regional economy. The direct benefits to the community has been limited. Ashley and Garland (1994) identify four potential types of community resource based tourism initiatives:

- development run entirely by outside entrepreneurs with no community involvement;
- development of an enterprise that voluntarily shares profits with local people;
- an enterprise established through joint venture and partnership between developer and local people;
- a venture run entirely by the local people.

In terms of these classifications, it can be seen that the tourism operations are largely of the first kind. Tourism activities are operated entirely by outside entrepreneurs with no community involvement. There is no facilitation of community empowerment and capacity building attached to tourism activities within this arrangement (Lewis 1996). As in the case of the Mpakeni community, the agreement is essentially between tourism operators and the NWPTB, no direct partnerships exists between the community and the tourism industry. The potential

exist for community development resulting from interaction with the tourism activities within the reserve.

An effort has been made to promote cultural awareness around the Pilanesberg National Park in the form of the Bakgatla Heritage Centre (Magome *pers. comm.* 1998). This centre is in its infancy and the collection of artefacts and materials is still in progress. This museum is housed in an old school building, which was built in 1937. Once this is fully operational it is hoped that it will become a major tourist centre, and offer a place for local people to sell their arts and crafts (Mtwofee *pers. comm.* 1998)²⁵. This project is being organised by members from the community who are sensitive to the culture and know it intimately. This will add to the authenticity of the project. There is enormous potential for this endeavour to expand and generate income for the local community.

²⁵ Mrs. Hilda Mtwofee Bakgatla Heritage Centre

CHAPTER 6

ANALYSIS

6.1 Introduction

A number of strengths and weakness are evident in the relationships between communities and protected areas as described in the case studies. In attempting to develop meaningful, equitable and functioning relationships between communities and protected areas, the threats need to be identified and overcome while opportunities are utilised and maximised.

6.2 SWOT analysis of Mthethomusha Game Reserve / community relationship

Strengths

- The Mpakeni community have legal ownership of land.
- There is a formal agreement, which clearly specifies the manner in which the community benefits directly from the reserve, and allows for the formation of a management committee which includes the community actively in the management objectives of the reserve.
- The community receive fixed direct benefits in the form of rent every month paid into a community trust fund.
- MGR has created employment, ± 120 jobs, and a policy of employing locals first has been adopted by MPB.
- The community are allowed controlled access into MGR for harvesting natural resources and unlimited access to visit graves sites within the reserve.
- The establishment of the interpretation centre promotes environmental education and awareness in the region.
- The creation of the forum and the conservation management committee has supported the formation of structures through which active participation can take place.
- Development projects in the community are supported by MPB in a facilitators role.
- The creation of a bursary fund and the training of the deputy warden of MGR from the local community ensures limited capacity building in understanding the principles and concepts of conservation. The people who have been trained will thus be able to actively ensure community involvement in management.

Weakness

- The agreement has not yet been registered with the Department of Land Affairs, therefore the amount the community receives is in the form of fixed rent, and not a percentage of the profits. A percentage of the profits would amount to more money than a fixed amount, and would result in the community having more of an incentive to see the MGR succeed.
- Many benefits are token rather than meaningful in terms of meeting the needs of the community, for example the supply of venison.
- There is no formalised partnerships with the tourism operators, thus limited benefits accrue from this sector. This sector has the potential to create many economic opportunities for the surrounding community both in terms of employment and supporting development initiatives within the community.
- At present the community do not influence the processes of conservation within the reserve which results in them having no real control over the decisions that impact on their lives.

Opportunities

- To forge an agreement with the tourism operators so that the economic developments related to tourism can accrue to the community.
- Diversify the tourism product to include cultural tourism, using the base of the existing tourist market for these kinds of initiatives so that the community can actively participate in tourism and benefit accordingly.
- Outsource some of the activities to local communities to promote entrepreneurial development within the community thus promoting sustainable and empowering development initiatives.
- Through the forum and the management committee the community could be more involved in management and by being present could build capacity to understand the concepts and the practices of formal conservation. This could also be the platform for the inclusion of indigenous knowledge to be included in the overall management objectives of the reserve.

Threats

- The high density and relatively poor populations surrounding Mthethomusha Game Reserve, which is increasing and placing more burden on the scarce natural resources outside of the protected area. This may result in the community looking towards MGR for resources, and thus questioning the relevance of the protected area.
- Associated with high population densities is the high levels of unemployment, and with MGR only creating approximately 120 jobs, people might question the relevance of the reserve. Without the support of the surrounding communities the existence of MGR would be very fragile, thus threatening the conservation of biodiversity in the region.
- Benefits do not reach the majority of the population, and are not promoting real economic growth in the region.

6.3 SWOT analysis of the Pilanesberg National Park / Community Relations

Strengths

- Environmental education and awareness is well developed and has been a major focus of the Pilanesberg National Park. This emphasis on environmental education and awareness has had positive impacts on the community in terms of their understanding of conservation and support thereof. The support of conservation is indicated by the community transforming Lebatlane into a nature reserve.
- The Bakgatla community has a well developed community institutional structure and through the CDO has been able to support socio-economic development in the region.
- Money generated from the Pilanesberg National Park in the form of 10% of the gate takings has allowed the community to facilitate development within the region, using the money for collateral to access loans and donations.
- The Pilanesberg National Park has assisted with the formation of Lebatlane Tribal Resource Reserve, thus allowing the community to support and understand the concepts of conservation and to actively control the reserve.

Weaknesses

- There is no formal agreement, thus there is no specifications regarding benefits and levels of involvement in the activities of Pilanesberg National Park. This has resulted in misunderstandings with regards to direct benefits, and if not clarified could lead to further tensions between the community and the Pilanesberg National Park.
- Benefits that are received are predominantly direct benefits, making the community passive beneficiaries as opposed to active partners. Benefits from the reserve thus do little in terms of cultivating empowerment and an understanding of the activities within the Pilanesberg National Park.
- There is a lack of transparency regarding how the 10% of gate takings is calculated, which has resulted in the community mistrusting the Pilanesberg National Park management.
- The community is not included in the management and decision making of Pilanesberg National Park in any meaningful way. Thus decisions which impact on the lives of the Bakgatla community are still being taken externally.
- The creation of Lebatlane is often used as justification for the community being excluded from active participation in the Pilanesberg National Park.

Opportunities

- If the CDO regroups, it can re-negotiate an agreement with the reserve which will include the tourism sector and will make clear provisions for active community participation. This will assist in making relations more accountable, equitable and transparent.
- To develop a policy which actively promotes employment from the local community first, both in conservation practices and in the tourism sector.
- Tourism diversifies to included cultural tourism, thus allowing the community to benefit meaningfully and sustainably. This could, if planned responsibly, promote sustainable community entrepreneurial development, but would need the commitment and support of the existing tourism sector in the region.
- Outsource some of the activities within the reserve so as to promote entrepreneurial development within the community.

- Lebatlane has the potential to develop into a unique and totally community owned and controlled tourism destination.

Threats

- If no clear agreement and policy with regards to the Bakgatla Community is reached the lack of meaningful benefits, both tangible and intangible, could result in the community questioning the relevance of the reserve. Without the support of the surrounding communities the reserve would become an “island under siege” (Carruthers 1997), and the long term survival would be questionable.
- If development projects cluster around the major centres of the community such as Saulspoort and Moruleng, and neglect the more remote villages that are in greater need of socio-economic development, and lost most in the creation of the reserve in terms of being forcibly removed from their homes, could result in a large section of the population not seeing the benefits and thus relevance of the reserve. Unless all sections of the community support the Pilanesberg National Park, the project will not be a success.
- If the cultural and spiritual attachment the Bakgatla people have to the land is not taken into account and included in management objective, the community could question the relevance of the Pilanesberg National Park.

6.4 A framework for community - protected area relationships

The idea behind developing a framework is to assist in the development of successful community - protected area relations. This framework could be used by communities, conservation agencies or private sector investors engaging in activities relating to protected area initiatives as a guide on how to approach successful relations with protected areas. It must be noted that no single framework could exist as every case has unique conditions requiring specific methods for the particular situation. This framework is by no means a blue-print which can be applied directly to all community - protected area situations. However, it will offer some guidelines and insights into the types of issues that will arise and offer a theoretical framework that will facilitate community - protected area relationships.

It is widely accepted that communities need to be actively involved in all aspects of protected area management and that they need to benefit accordingly (Wainwright and Wehrmeyer 1997; Venter 1998; McIvor 1997; Lewis 1996; Davion 1996). The first step in engaging in a protected area - community involvement is to identify the relevant role-players. Davies (1997), has stressed that the success of Madikwe Game Reserve depends on including three main partners - the conservation agency, the community and the private sector - as full and meaningful partners. Each of these partners have specific roles and functions, all of which contribute in their own way to the success of the project as a whole. In many protected areas in South Africa these three partners will be involved and it is important that they all contribute to the attainment of the overall goal of sustainable socio-economic development and the conservation of biodiversity

The framework (Table 3) identifies five main issues that are essential for successful community - protected area relationships. These issues are followed by appropriate actions which have been listed either as being essential for any protected area - neighbouring community relationship, recommended or value adding. The recommended and value adding factors, while not absolutely essential for establishing relationships between communities and protected areas will influence the long term success of the project and should lead to the ultimate goal of conserving of biodiversity to be met. It must also be noted that often the essential requirements will lead to recommended actions, which in turn could lead to value added actions.

Table 3: A framework for community -protected area relationships

A Framework for Community - Protected Area Relationships		
<i>Essential</i>	<i>Recommended</i>	<i>Value Adding</i>
1. Ownership		
Sense of ownership - This is a complex issue and is made up of a number of components. It is imperative before any successful partnership can develop, that the community believe that the project has relevance to them and that they have the ability to influence the activities that will directly impact on their lives	Legal tenure - This makes interaction much easier, as it grants the community a great deal of bargaining power when establishing agreements. If the community has legal ownership of the land effectively, agreements need to be entered into between interested parties thus establishing some sort of partnerships.	Total Ownership - This occurs if communities legally own the land and operate and control all activities within the protected area, making it a wholly community initiative. Often this is the long term objective and through training of community members in management and conservation will develop the capacity to take control of operations.
2. Partnerships		
<i>Essential</i>	<i>Recommended</i>	<i>Value Adding</i>
Formal Agreement - Unless clear guidelines referring to the manner in which the community will be involved and the extent and process in which they will benefit are laid down, misunderstandings and misconceptions will develop. This agreement must be legally binding. The agreement should include: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Profit sharing; • Employment policy – employing locals first and training locals to ensure future attainment of more senior positions; • Access system - how much, at what times and how this is controlled. This must include access for the collection of natural resources and for cultural and recreational purposes; • Indicate how the community is to participate in management and decision making process. <p>It is important that agreements are not only between communities and conservation agencies, but that they also include the private sector tourism operators who can</p>	Community Liaison Forum - The establishment of a forum or body that is representative of all relevant stakeholders, including the tourism operators. The community should be represented on the forum by the relevant Tribal Authority and democratically elected representatives thus making the process more accountable. The forum must: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Be representative; • Meet regularly; • Establish a shared vision / goal; • Define the roles and responsibilities of each stakeholder identified; • Establish links between conservation / tourism and the development projects within the community; • Identify a plan of action to carry out the activities identified. 	Management Committee - This allows for community members to be equally represented on a management board. Communities will have the capacity and the power to influence proceedings and decisions relating to the management of protected areas. This should serve as a platform to include indigenous knowledge into management structures.

possibly offer greater economic and entrepreneurial development.		
<p align="center">Community Institutions</p> <p>Community institutions will be imperative for the formation of formal agreements. These institutions should be representative of the community at large and have appropriate legal standing.</p>		
3. Benefits		
<i>Essential</i>	<i>Recommended</i>	<i>Value Adding</i>
<p>Direct Benefits - these should include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Monetary benefits in the form of profit sharing or rent; • Employment; • Access to the natural resources within the protected area. 	<p>Indirect Benefits - these should include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Improvement in the infrastructure and services to the area; • Inclusion in management and decision making; • Conservation agencies should use their leverage with other government departments to promote integrated development in the regions; • Assist in development projects as facilitators. 	<p>Empowerment - Conservation agencies and tourism operators should assist with:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Skills training and capacity building of the surrounding communities; • Diversifying the local economy through the development of small entrepreneurial businesses. <p>These should lead to empowerment.</p>
Interaction between Benefits		
<p>Direct benefits are important for the short-term success of a project and are essential for gaining support of the local people. However, on their own create dependency and will not ensure the long-term sustainability of a project. These needed to be expanded on with more long-term indirect and empowering benefits. Empowerment should not be seen so much as value adding but rather as being the end result of benefits that are responsible and do not create dependency</p>		
4. Environmental Education and Awareness		
<i>Essential</i>	<i>Recommended</i>	<i>Value Adding</i>
<p>Sustainable Living Practices – This should promote the sustainable use of natural resources both inside and outside of protected areas. Should include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Extension work; • Encouragement of permaculture, market gardens etc. • Adopting a holistic approach to environmental education. 	<p>Formal environmental education - This should include education on issue relating to conservation. The target of this should be school group, and other groups in the community. This should assist in the understanding of conservation issues and making conservation relevant to the community. Once the community understand and support the concept of conservation, they will be more able to participate in the management objectives of protected areas.</p>	<p>Indigenous Knowledge - Indigenous knowledge exists and should be included in the management structures of protected areas. This knowledge can only be acquired through close co-operation with the community. It should be included in formal conservation strategies. This will allow the community to contribute meaningfully towards the management of protected areas, and allows the community an understanding of and support for conservation.</p>

5. Partnerships with other stakeholders e.g. Tourism

<i>Essential</i>	<i>Recommended</i>	<i>Value Adding</i>
Formal Agreements – Communities must enter into agreements with other stakeholders, not relying solely on the conservation agencies. In particular, the tourism sector. These agreements must be binding and include: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employment policy; • Benefits such as profit sharing; • Allow for communication between communities and the relevant stakeholder. 	Support Entrepreneurial development - These partners can usually contribute to economic development through supporting entrepreneurial development. A commitment by private sector operation of supporting local development should be encouraged.	Diversifying the Product - With the tourism sector in particular, this sector should encourage the diversification of the product into the realms of cultural tourism, for example. This would allow communities to actively control a number of tourism related activities.

This framework provides a guideline for interested and affected parties engaging in community – protected areas relationship. It raises critical issues which must be dealt with when dealing with community – protected area relationships. If clear structures are in place that deal with the critical issues raised in the relationship between communities and protected area, this could improve effectiveness of management and benefits generated for stakeholders. This framework could provide a useful tool in other community – protected area relationships to ensure that critical issues are addressed in the establishment of a co-operative partnership.

CHAPTER 7

DISCUSSION

The findings of this study show that the Mpakeni community is characterised by high levels of unemployment, low annual cash incomes, low literacy levels and high population densities. Similarly, the Bakgatla community also show many of the same socio-economic conditions. However the Bakgatla community appear to have a more favourable economy to the Mpakeni community in the form of better infrastructural development and higher levels of employment and formal education. It is therefore imperative that in considering the relationship between the respective protected areas and the communities that we take into account the nature of these relationships and how they deal with these socio-economic issues. In chapter 3 the issue of alleviating poverty was raised, and how the relative poverty of those living closest to the protected areas were posing the greatest threat to the conservation of biodiversity. Consideration also needs to be given to communities' spiritual and cultural attachment to the land. All communities living along side protected areas need to be actively included in the benefits and activities of protected areas no matter what their particular socio-economic development needs are ensuring support for protected areas. This raises the point that it is not only the extreme poverty of those living closest to protected areas that are putting pressure on conservation, but this added to by a cultural and spiritual attachment the community have with regards to the land. If communities have this attachment to the land they desire to be included in the benefits and the management activities irrespective of their socio-economic condition. This adds another dimension to the debate surrounding neighbouring community - protected area relations. We need to consider the case studies in terms of how they are focusing on meeting the communities socio-economic and cultural needs and expectations, and whether it results in community support of protected areas hence furthering the goals of conservation.

From this study it became evident that the issue of formal ownership is clearly defined in the case of MGR. The community has formal ownership of this land and this has resulted in a formal lease agreement which clearly specifies and identifies the benefits and role the community play in the management of MGR. However, there are a

number of issues that have not been dealt with efficiently in the agreement and attention should be given to ways in which this agreement could become more equitable and appropriate to the community. The agreement does not deal with sense of ownership, and the more intangible aspects of protected area - neighbouring community relationships. It can be concluded from this study that the Bakgatla community's ownership issues with regards to the Pilanesberg National Park are far more complex with the history of forced removals and the process this has followed leaving animosities between the reserve and the surrounding people. The Bakgatla community does have ownership of a portion of the land incorporated in the Pilanesberg National Park, however no formal written agreement to date has been established. There is a strong sense of ownership among the Bakgatla community over the Pilanesberg National Park, due to their social and cultural connection with the land. Without the clear definition of the exact role the community plays in the Pilanesberg National Park management, most interaction takes place in a passive capacity. The management of the Pilanesberg National Park sees participation by the community as a means to further their conservation objectives rather than including them as active and equal partners. The formation of the CDO would give the community a clear structure through which interaction can take place.

In many sub-Saharan African countries, rural areas Traditional Authorities are the operational institutional structures (Davion 1996). The Tribal Authority structures that have been adopted and supported as local government structures in South Africa can be seen as a result of the Apartheid Bantustan system (Venter 1998). The credibility of these Tribal Authorities has been targeted by the ANC who argued that the Tribal Authorities were not representing the interests of the people and should be replaced with democratically elected structures (Venter 1998). Following the 1994 elections, the Tribal Authorities were retained as local government structures, but their powers were limited to the allocation of residential, agricultural and grazing land-use rights and adjudicating civil disputes. In 1995 local government elections were held to elect a regional council for each of the magisterial districts, to promote and co-ordinate development within the district (Venter 1998). The regional councils work in accordance with Tribal Authorities in many areas. However, Tribal Authorities remain the essential institutions for local government in many rural areas in South Africa (Davion 1996). It is for this reason that most protected area -

neighbouring communities will interact through the relevant Tribal Authorities. However, there are often other community institutions which exist and will influence the levels of participation the community will undertake. Only if these institutions are representative and accountable and have the ability to impact on proceedings meaningfully, participation will be more likely to ensue, otherwise the community will continue to be neglected and problems will not be solved.

This study has indicated that the institutional structures through which both the Mpakeni and the Bakgatla community interact with the respective protected areas are the relevant Tribal Authorities. However, in both areas efforts have been made to make the processes of interaction more representative of the communities at large. The Mpakeni People together with MPB staff have set-up a forum to deal with the interaction of community and protected area. The forum has had many teething problems, mostly relating to representativeness and up to date has not contributed meaningfully in establishing links between the community and MGR. These issues need to be resolved, and a shared vision and action for all stakeholders needs to be decided upon if the forum is to have a meaningful impact on the management structures of MGR. However, the structure has been set up and the potential for this to be an effective vehicle for community - protected area relations exists. The Bakgatla CDO, when still in existence, effectively promoted socio-economic development in the area through its interaction with the Pilanesberg National Park. The demise of this organisation raises a number of issues relating to representativeness and popular support of community institutions. However, with its collapse the only interaction that takes place between the protected area and the community now is through the Tribal Authority. What is needed is a more representative community institution that can effectively manage the relationship with the Pilanesberg National Park. Through forums and community institutions community members will have the opportunity to develop a shared vision with the conservation agencies for sustainable living which draws upon the linkages between conservation and development (Venter 1998).

Infield (1989) has emphasised the need for tangible benefits to accrue to communities in order for them to support the concepts of conservation and protected areas. Benefits need to be evaluated in terms of how they impact on the communities

survival. The community needs to perceive these benefits as worthwhile for them to have the desired effect of contributing to the conservation of the biodiversity. Benefits also need to be evaluated on how much they create dependencies as opposed to creating empowering opportunities for communities to control their own lives (Davion 1996). With regards to direct benefits the MGR does contribute to the well being of the surrounding Mpakeni community. Through a lease agreement, controlled access and employment the reserve does contribute to the neighbouring community. These benefits must also be considered in terms of the size of the benefits related to the size and scale of needs of the community. In this light the benefits could be seen as menial, however, the realistic limitations of what MGR can offer the community must be considered and thus the benefits do contribute to the lives of a number of residents in the Mpakeni Tribal Area. However, none of these benefits are really empowering benefits and on their own would fail to promote extensive support for the activities within the protected area. These are also only short-term benefits with no long-term stake in the overall socio-economic development of the region. Development should be seen as the empowerment of people to help themselves and to have control over their future (Davion 1996). MPB has dealt with this by accompanying the direct benefits with assistance with extension work and development projects in the community. The establishment of the interpretation centre has the potential to impact positively in training the community in sustainable living practices. According to Davion (1996) development projects and extension programmes need to address the linkages of conservation to development, as opposed to trying to tack on the accoutrement of development to a pre-defined conservation objective.

In terms of the benefits the Pilanesberg National Park offer the surrounding Bakgatla Community, these vary and are quite complex. Once again consideration needs to be given to the size of the community relative to the scale of the benefits. The Pilanesberg National Park is much bigger than MGR, and the nature of the reserve as a major tourist destination has resulted in more economic resources available to the reserve staff. This has not impacted on the benefits the community receive to any great extent, who should relative to the activities and the size of the Pilanesberg National Park receive far greater direct benefits. The lack of a clear policy with regards to direct involvement of the community in the activities of the reserve has

resulted in a lack of transparency with regard to benefits accruing to the community. The direct benefits in the form of employment, profit sharing and limited access affect the communities in different manners. Employment, while does benefit the community does not benefit the community to its full potential if a policy of locals first had been utilised. Employment is also mainly of a more menial nature with little development opportunities. Community access is limited in such a manner that it has limited meaningfulness to the community. The money received from gate takings, although the manner in which this is worked out is not satisfactory to the community, has been put to good use by the community themselves to fulfil their development objectives. These benefits from the Pilanesberg National Park can be largely seen as a means to satisfy their conservation objective, and the benefits the community receive are to placate them with no real interest in the sustainable development of the surrounding community.

However, the Bakgatla community has benefited indirectly from the Pilanesberg National Park. The mere existence of the reserve has resulted in improved infrastructure throughout the region. Through environmental education and awareness and skills training support, the community have managed to improve their own living conditions. These benefits can be attributed to the commitment of the community themselves in promoting sustainable socio-economic development. The commitment shown by the Pilanesberg National Park in supporting environmental education and awareness in the region has had the effect that many people support the concept of conservation, which is reflected in the creation of the Lebatlane Tribal Resource Reserve. With support from the Pilanesberg National Park in terms of training, management and the supply of game species, the Bakgatla community have been able to set-up a wholly community owned reserve. The full potential of this has not been realised, but real empowerment and development is a long process and should not be seen as simple quick solutions.

CHAPTER 8

CONCLUSION

It can therefore be concluded that the short comings in both the cases is the absence of the tourism sectors as partners in the relationship between communities and protected areas. The tourism sector has the potential to offer the community great economic development possibilities through spin-off industries and forging links between the tourism sector and community development. All the emphasis is placed on the relationship between the relevant conservation agencies and the respective communities, whilst largely neglecting the role the tourism sector should play. A fundamental redefinition of the role the private sector should play in these communities is needed. Essentially to forge links between community socio-economic development and the tourism sector.

The interaction between the communities and the relevant protected areas in the two case studies, occurs on differing levels and in different manners. This has been affected by the history of the formation of the protected area, the nature of the protected area, ownership issues, the commitment of the relevant conservation agencies and the socio-economic and institutional capacity of the community themselves. Through a careful analysis of the case studies a number of strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats have been identified. These serve to clarify what is appropriate in forging successful relationships between protected areas and surrounding communities. Through the experiences drawn from the Bakgatla and Mpakeni communities a framework has been developed that identifies the most pressing issues concerning relationships between protected areas and communities. The appropriate actions have also been listed. Using a framework would provide a structure through which community interaction with protected areas should take. Community relationships with protected areas need to be clarified and formalised and be acceptable to all relevant stakeholders. Communities need to participate in activities that impact on their lives, they need to benefit from protected areas in ways that are meaningful and appropriate for them to support the concepts of conservation. A re-empowerment is needed to allow for communities to have the ability to impact on the processes of conservation.

The challenges and conditions faced by the Bakgatla and Mpakeni communities are characteristic of many rural communities surrounding protected areas. The conclusions drawn regarding rural community responses to development and conservation issues are thus relevant to the relationship between communities and protected areas in other regions. It is for this reason that the framework developed in this study can be applied to the much broader context of community - protected area relationships in developing areas.

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APPENDICES

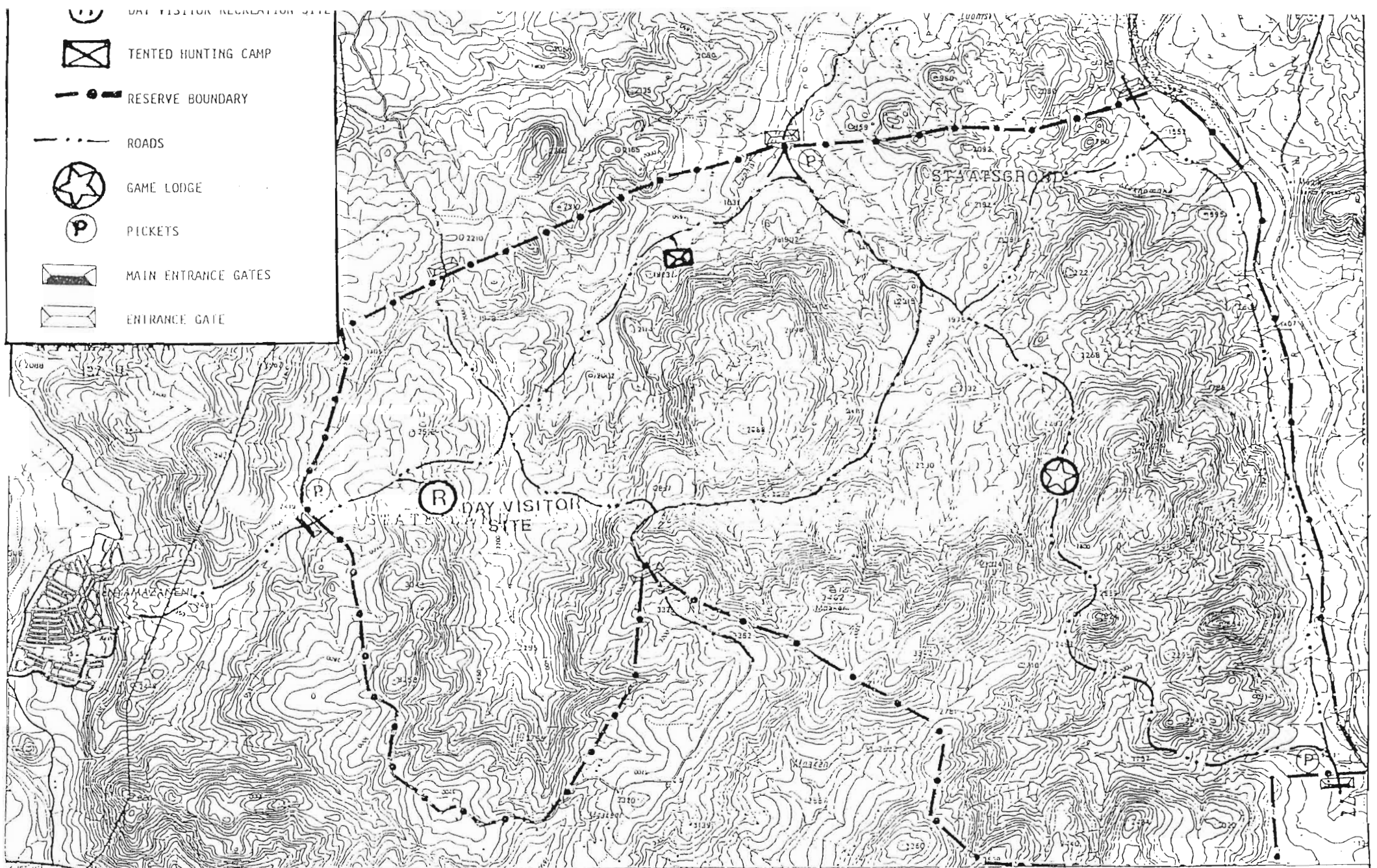
Appendix 1: Map of Mthethomusha Game Reserve

Appendix 2: Mpakeni Tribal Resolution

Appendix 3: The History of human settlement in the Pilanesberg region.

Appendix 4: A Map of the Land Use in the Mankwe District.

Appendix 5: A map of Pilanesberg National Park.



meeting of the Mpakeni Tribe under Chief Bongani Charles held at Piensaar on the ~~TWENTY~~ ^{THIRTY} ~~THIRD~~ ^{THIRD} of ~~MARCH~~ ^{MARCH} 1992 in the presence of Chief ~~Mr~~ Charles Nkosi and ~~THIRTEEN~~ ^{TWELVE} members of the tribe, it was resolved by the Mpakeni Tribe that:-

1. Bongani Charles Nkosi be authorised to enter into and sign lease between the Mpakeni Tribal Authority and the MaNgwane Corporation regarding the Mkhathomusha Game Reserve.

It was further resolved that this lease between the Tribal Authority and the MaNgwane Parks Corporation (NPC) contain inter alia the following terms:

A lease period of 99 years over the entire Game Reserve as more specifically defined in the actual lease document;

The right of control of access to the area be vested with the NPC;

That the NPC are permitted to develop tourist facilities within the Reserve and to sub-lease and appoint a private operator to operate such facilities;

That the NPC be permitted to grant a private operator rights of traverse over the area for commercial purposes;

That the NPC undertake to continue to manage the Game Reserve as a tribal resource area;

That the NPC agree to compensate the Mpakeni Tribe for the use of the area and loss of grazing.

B. C. Nkosi

J. B. Nkosi

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Appendix 3 : The History of human settlement in the Pilanesberg region.

Unpublished paper prepare by Carolyn Brayshaw, University of Natal, Pietermaritzburg. 1998.

The Pilanesberg region has a rich history of human activities. The natural environment has played an enormous role in shaping human settlement from earliest times (Brett 1989; Carruthers 1997). The Pilanesberg was well suited to the requirements of the Khoisan, who occupied many savanna regions within southern Africa. There are several known archaeological sites that provide evidence of their presence, one of which can be found near the resort of Kwa Maritane.

Archaeological sites dating back to AD 1300 have been found in the Rustenberg district, indicating iron age human activity (Brett 1989). The iron age brought with it a host of changes, both for humans settlement patterns and the environment. Bantu speaking people arrived from the north with new ways and a new technology. This transformed the area forever. They brought crops and knowledge of iron. For the first time, humans took more than just their basic needs from nature, and this placed significant stress on the environment. Crops were introduced, and cattle and goat herding on a larger scale took place. This effectively transformed the natural environment. SeTswana groups were wide spread north of the Magaliesberg and many of the royal Sotho-Tswana lineage trace their origins to this area (Brett 1989).

In the 19th century two events disrupted the Batswana people (Brett 1989). In KwaZulu-Natal the rise of the Zulu Kingdom under Shaka, was growing in influence and was affecting the country and beyond, and in the Cape the Great Trek was beginning to take place.

The expansion of the Zulu nation and the ripple effects of Shaka's conquests as fleeing clans collided with settled people, had repercussions throughout southern Africa (Brett 1998). Even before the rebellious Mzilikazi was exiled by Shaka, Sotho refugees from the south caused havoc among the SeTswana chiefdoms between the Vaal and the Limpopo Rivers. However, the greatest impact was made by the Ndebele under Mzilikazi. Mzilikazi fled the wrath of Shaka with a few hundred men,

but within seven years these few hundred Ndebele, augmented by refugees from the Zulu kingdom as well as volunteers and conquered SeSotho, had grown to about 70 000 in number (Brett 1989). By the mid - 1820s the Ndebele had settled in the area between present day Pretoria and Rustenberg. The Ndebele attacked the neighbouring SeTswana chiefdoms and caused refugees to disperse throughout the Transvaal (Brett 1989).

The Voortrekkers, moved into the area from the Cape Colony, from 1836 onwards. After several altercations with the Ndebele, a combined Voortrekker, Griqua and Barolong force defeated the Ndebele at Mosega near the Marico River. Rather than submit to Voortrekker domination, Mzilikazi migrated northwards across the Limpopo river and established the settlement of Bulawayo in present day Zimbabwe (Brett 1989).

Initially the Magaliesberg mountains formed a natural barrier between the Voortrekkers and the remnant Batswana. The latter favoured the northern side of the mountain as the climate was warmer and grazing was plentiful. Later the movements of whites settlers across the mountains led to clashes and the seizure of Batswana land (Morton 1995). In 1852, by which time there was a steady stream of whites pouring into the Transvaal, Britain recognised the independence of the Transvaal under Pretorious, renounced all treaties and alliances between Britain and the black people north of the Vaal river, and agreed not to sell firearms to black people. The Batswana found themselves at the mercy of unscrupulous white settlers who attacked even friendly villages in search of cattle and orphans to serve as labourers on their farms. With the discovery of diamonds in Kimberley, Batswana land was further eroded by renegades determined to acquire land by any means. The Batswana's land was divided into farms and settled by white farmers (Brett 1989).

It was in the early colonial era that the Bakgatla gained and protected their access to land and water resources and enlarged their cattle herds by supporting ethnic unity under *kgosi* Linchwe I (1875 - 1920). Linchwe's creation of an ethnic chiefdom overcame an international boundary (Morton 1995). By adopting western and

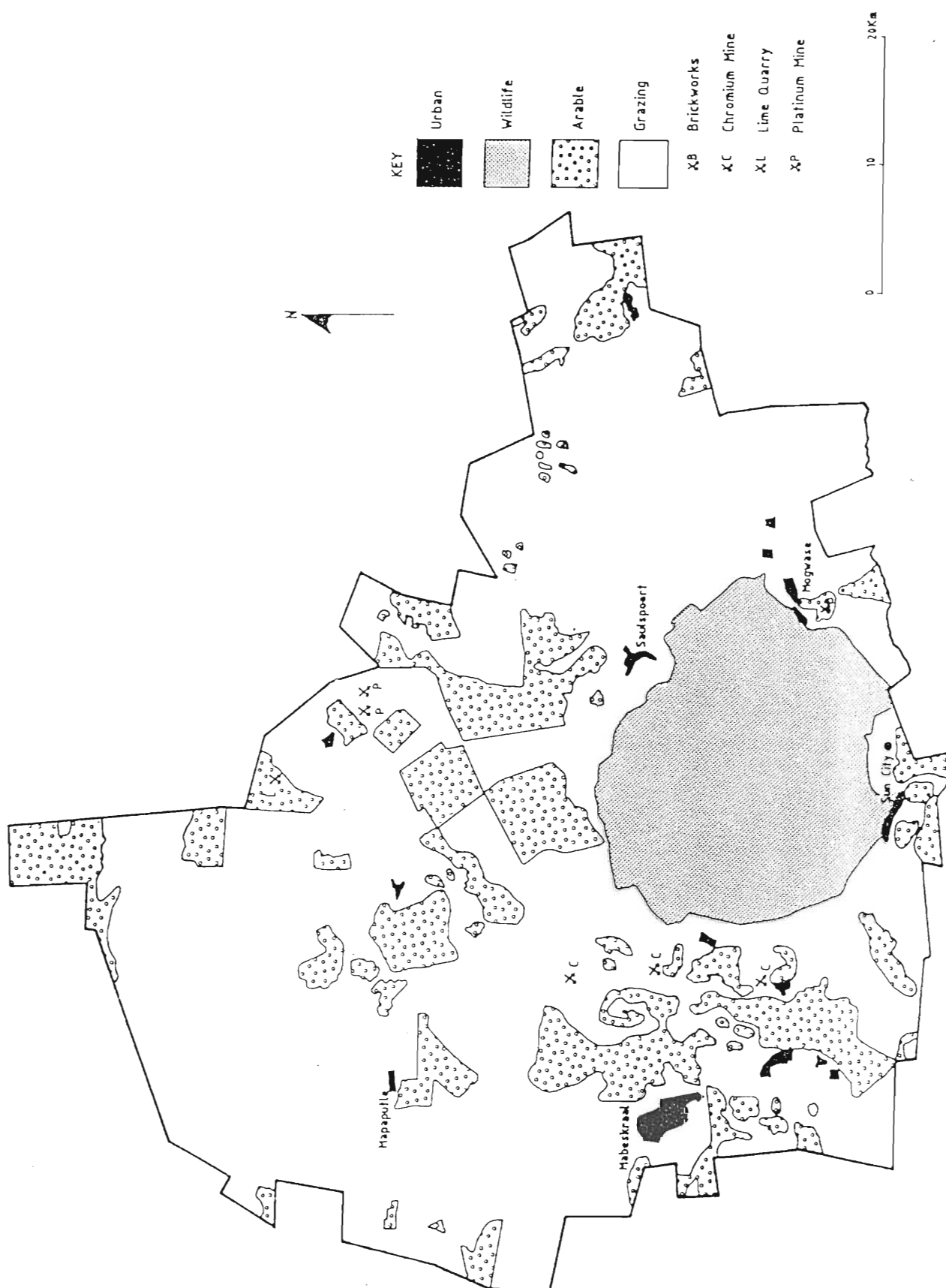
Christian norms, accepting colonial laws, and making persistent territorial claims, Linchwe gained British recognition as the hereditary chief of the Bakgatla on both sides of the border. Until they acquired territory in Bechuanaland in the 1870s, the Bakgatla lacked coherence as a group. They originated in the Transvaal, north of Rustenburg in the hills the Boers called 'Pilanesberg', where they had been ruled as landless subjects by Mzilikazi's AmaNdebele after 1827 and by the Rustenburg Boers after 1837. The South African Republic (SAR) recognised Linchwe's grandfather, Pilane and his father Kgamanyane as *Kapteins* (or 'chiefs'), who were responsible for governing scattered Bakgatla living on Boer farms (Morton 1995). After 1867, the people under Kgamanyane were gradually collected on a single farm, Saulspoort, then owned by Paul Kruger, Commandant-General of the SAR. According to the Dutch Reform Church Archives, about 3000 Bakgatla lived at Saulspoort in 1870 (Morton 1995). The history of the Bakgatla after this period is representative of the larger history of the Transvaal and the Bechuanaland Protectorate. Thus the Bakgatla were divided and the rule of Linchwe was not officially recognised by the Transvaal government, but unofficially he remained the leader of the Bakgatla both in the Transvaal and in Bechuanaland.

Before 1913 the Bakgatla land was divided into fifty tiny fragments scattered throughout the northern and western Transvaal. Between 1906 and the Land Act of 1913, the Bakgatla purchased 54 238 acres of farming land in the Saulspoort area, nearly tripling their total territory from 84,8 square miles to 143,3 square miles. These farms included Modderkuil, Witfontein, Koedoesfontein, Legkraal, Welgewaagd, Middlekuil, Cyferkuil, Wilgespruit and Rhenosterkraal, some of which fall within the Pilanesberg National Park today (Morton 1995). The 1913 Land Act ensured that land in South Africa was segregated between black and white. After the 1913 Land Act, the titles of eight farms properties were transferred to the Bakgatla, these included: Doornpoort, Modderkrui, Koedoesfontein, Rooderand, Spitzkop, Welgeval, Wildebeestkuil and Zandfontein. These farms added nearly 29 000 acres to the Saulspoort holdings (Morton 1995). These purchase allowed the Bakgatla to become major cattle owners in the areas, thus allowing them to wield a certain amount of power in the region. In 1936, 62 000 square kilometres of white-owned land was

declared 'released', the intention being that the land would be added to the existing black-owned lands. The Pilanesberg district was included, as were other areas of land, which, together with the 1913 land and recent purchases, comprised the former Bophuthatswana (Morton 1995). In time the white farmers were bought out and the area reverted back to the Bakgatla tribe.

It is these farms that largely constitute the Bakgatla community today. The Bakgatla still have close ties with the parent Bakgatla community in Mochudi, Botswana, where Chief Lenchwe II is paramount chief. Since the formation of an ethnic grouping, a number of political, social and infrastructural changes have taken place that has impacted on the nature of the society. Today the Bakgatla community based at Moruleng consists of 28 villages, and has a population estimated at 85 000 (Bakgatla -Ba-Kgafela Tribal Administration 1998).

Appendix 4 A Map of the Land Use in the Mankwe District



KEY

- Caravan Park
- Tented Camp
- Tea Room
- Grocery Store
- Park Butchery
- Game-viewing Hide
- Picnic Site
- View Site
- Petrol
- Airport
- Post Office
- Hospital
- Bank
- Crocodile Farm
- distance in km

ALTITUDE

- above 1 450 metres
- 1 250 to 1 450 metres
- 1 150 to 1 250 metres
- below 1 150 metres

